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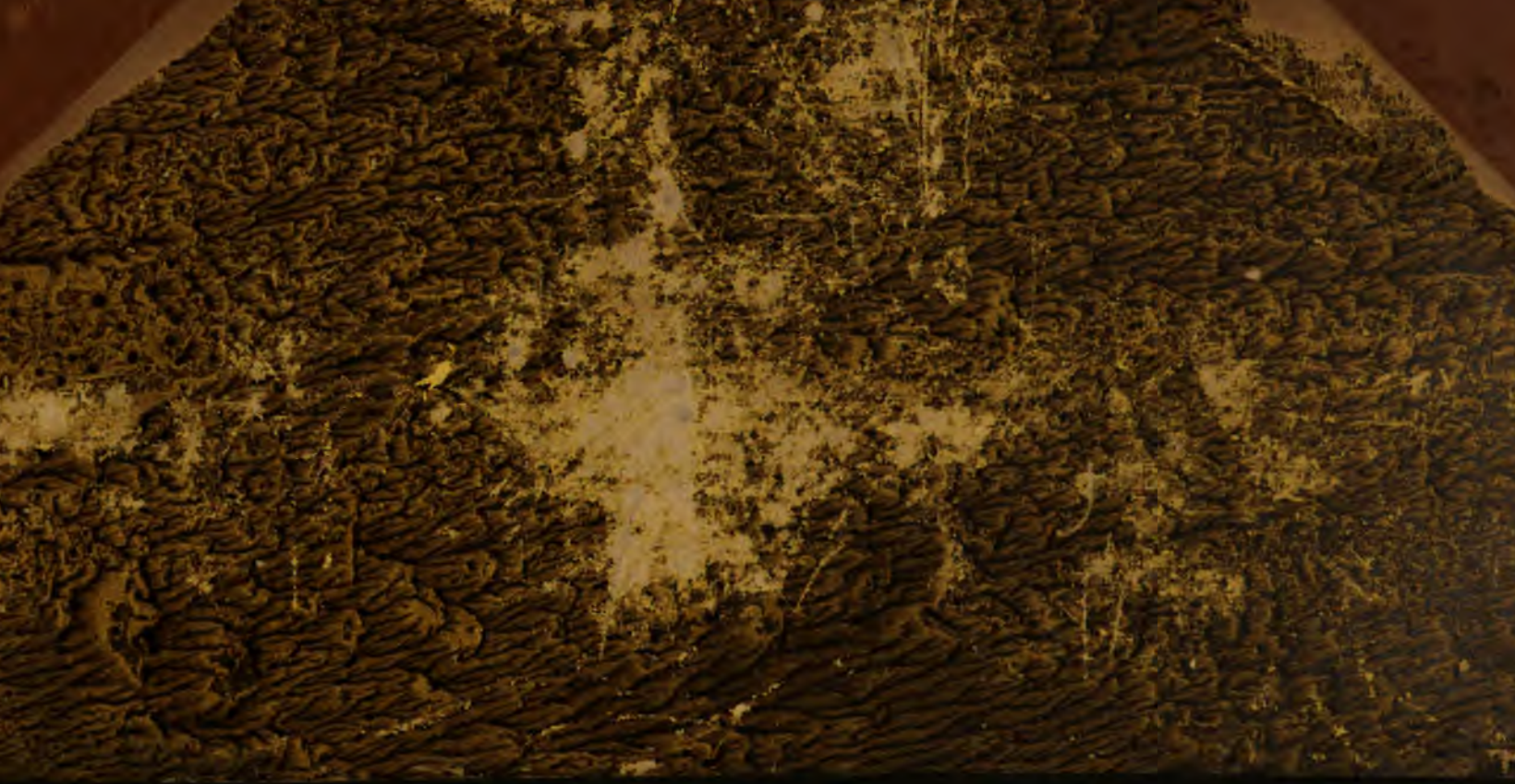

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JANUARY, 1844.

Art. I.—COMMERCE AND RESOURCES OF BRITISH AMERICA.

The dependencies of England in North America, exclusive of such of the West India islands as form part of that division of the world, are—The province of Canada, Upper and Lower; the province of New Brunswick; the province of Nova Scotia, and the island of Cape Breton; Prince Edward's island; Newfoundland; the Northwest, or Hudson's Bay Territory; the Bermudas.

The capture of Quebec by General Wolfe, in September, 1759, brought the province of Canada under the dominion of England, in whose possession it has since continued without interruption. This important possession is bounded on the east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic ocean, on the north by the Hudson's Bay territory, on the west by the Pacific ocean, and on the south by the United States of America. It lies between 42° and 53° north latitude, and between 64° and 143° west longitude. It is usually considered, however, that the western extremity of the province is Goose lake, near Fort William, on Lake Superior, in 90° 20′ west longitude. The length of Canada, thus limited, from east to west, is about 1,000 miles; and its average breadth, from north to south, 300 miles—so that its area is 300,000 square miles, or two and a half times that of Great Britain and Ireland.

Upper and Lower Canada contained 270,718 inhabitants in 1806, 333,250 in 1816, and 580,450 in 1824.

The population of the four districts of Lower Canada, in 1831, was—

Quebec,	137,126	Gaspé,	9,575
Montreal,	284,650		
Three Rivers,	70,157	Total,	501,438

The increase in the numbers of the people, by natural means, is rapid. The difference between the births and deaths, in the six years from 1831 to 1836, is equal to an average annual increase of 2¼ per cent. But this increase is importantly assisted by emigration. In the same six years, the number of emigrants from the United Kingdom, who landed at Quebec and Montreal, was 194,936. The greater part of these went forward to

the upper province, and some of them probably crossed over to the United States; but, on the other hand, a number, probably greater than those, of British emigrants who landed at ports in the United States, proceeded onward to Canada. During the six years, (1831 to 1836,) the number who landed at the port of New York, alone, was 169,354. The increase altogether, in the districts of Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers, between 1831 and 1836, was 70,789. The population of the whole of Lower Canada, in the latter year, was supposed to exceed 600,000.

The population of Upper Canada, in 1831, had reached 296,544; making the numbers in the entire province, in that year, 797,982. In 1836, they were but little, if at all, below a million. At this time, (1843,) the Canadians have probably increased to 1,250,000, being about equal to the population of Denmark, exclusive of the duchies of Sleswick Holstein.

The trade of England with this part of her dominions is considerable. The exports exceed in value the return shipments, as must be the case while any considerable number of British subjects are emigrating thither. The custom-house accounts do not, indeed, state the full measure of this excess, since no entry is made of the greater part of the property taken with them by emigrants; and which, although the value may not be great in the individual cases, must amount to a considerable sum in the aggregate.

The total imports and exports of Canada in each year, from 1832 to 1839, were valued in official documents as under:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£1,567,719	£952,463	1837,.....	£1,602,353	£908,702
1833,.....	1,665,144	965,026	1838,.....	1,413,269	968,599
1834,.....	1,063,643	1,018,922	1839,.....	2,137,374	1,099,337
1835,.....	1,496,378	896,848			
1836,.....	1,941,053	1,034,514	Total,..	£12,886,933	£7,844,411

It thus appears that, during those eight years, this province has imported to the value of five millions beyond its exports; the whole of which excess has been drawn from England.

The value of British cotton, linen, silk, woollen, and iron manufactures, that found a market in Canada in each of those years, was—

	Manufactures of					
	Cotton.	Linen.	Silk.	Woollen.	Iron.	Tot. of the foregoing.
Years.	£	£	£	£	£	£
1832,.....	309,170	54,320	62,389	229,631	68,246	723,756
1833,.....	247,616	50,576	50,191	257,652	83,373	689,408
1834,.....	173,347	26,733	40,909	133,490	56,663	431,142
1835,.....	349,831	60,039	58,988	237,961	56,884	763,703
1836,.....	473,160	61,235	63,143	303,166	91,643	992,347
1837,.....	283,858	52,847	50,222	224,671	64,839	676,437
1838,.....	249,872	43,936	43,889	193,859	54,871	586,427
1839,.....	544,110	67,468	95,772	329,598	111,604	1,148,552

The value of ashes, grain, and timber, the most important articles of Canadian produce that were exported, was as follows:—

Years.	Ashes.	Grain, &c.	Timber.	Together.
1832,.....	£204,667	£221,552	£471,837	£898,056
1833,.....	174,281	241,720	489,367	905,368
1834,.....	108,287	139,742	683,208	931,237
1835,.....	176,231	39,590	620,182	836,003
1836,.....	238,951	28,804	703,165	970,920
1837,.....	180,571	15,331	651,786	847,688
1838,.....	168,980	46,034	706,185	921,199
1839,.....	142,457	32,052	880,403	1,054,912

The shipping that entered and cleared from the ports of the province, in the same years, were as follows:—

Inwards.

	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign Countries.		Total.	
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,	860	255,527	1,162	142,280	780	101,497	25	5,938	2,827	505,242
1833,	812	234,844	1,155	162,320	994	179,266	19	4,868	2,980	581,298
1834,	931	275,518	1,157	127,034	771	159,133	20	5,259	2,879	506,944
1835,	947	297,109	*217	*24,022	1,349	75,748	28	6,910	2,541	403,789
1836,	953	310,645	1,093	202,715	910	91,753	44	11,446	3,000	616,559
1837,	854	288,481	827	189,862	874	90,847	40	10,496	2,595	579,686
1838,	863	306,241	896	152,443	1,113	89,225	46	12,376	2,918	560,285
				Cleared outwards.						
1832,	962	272,468	157	7,418	883	46,176	2	493	2,004	326,555
1833,	899	260,967	200	16,977	327	68,623	4	1,613	1,430	348,180
1834,	1,024	302,308	180	14,216	399	69,776	9	2,837	1,612	389,137
1835,	1,015	317,990	218	17,090	832	70,682	9	1,740	2,074	407,502
1836,	1,092	350,741	230	18,175	419	59,697	1	199	1,742	428,812
1837,	980	331,883	164	13,875	432	49,301	1	353	1,577	395,412
1838,	955	344,153	143	11,939	445	67,816	1	343	1,544	424,251

Ship-building forms an important and increasing branch of industry in the province. There were built and registered in the different ports of Canada, in each of the ten years, (1832 to 1841,) the following numbers:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	25	4,414	1837,.....	32	6,356
1833,.....	29	5,154	1838,.....	33	6,916
1834,.....	32	6,176	1839,.....	42	10,857
1835,.....	26	5,465	1840,.....	54	19,768
1836,.....	32	7,704	1841,.....	64	20,707

The greater part of these vessels are sent for sale to England, and are then registered in the various ports of the United Kingdom. There were registered, as belonging to Canadian ports, at the end of 1841—

	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.
Sailing vessels, under 50 tons,.	225	6,134	Steam vessels, under 50 tons,.	1	47
" above "	236	42,767	" above "	8	983
Total,.....	461	48,901	Total,.....	9	1,030
Total sailing and steam vessels,.....				470	49,931

The fisheries for cod, herrings, mackerel, and salmon, carried on from Lower Canada, furnish, after supplying the inhabitants of the province, a yearly export, chiefly to our West India colonies, to the value of £50,000 to £80,000.

Agriculture must necessarily, for many years to come, engage the chief part of the attention of the Canadian population; and, if even the assumed necessity for emigration thither, from the parent country, should cease, she will continue to find customers among them for her cheap manufactures, although the commonest articles of clothing and household utensils have long been produced in their cottages. It was found that, in 1830, there were 13,400 domestic looms in Lower Canada, estimated to produce about 1,400,000 yards of coarse woollen cloth, 1,000,000 yards of common flannel, and 1,350,000 yards of linen. There were, at the same time, in

* Sailing vessels only included in this year. The greater part of the trade with neighboring colonies is carried on by means of barges.

that division of the province, 90 carding, and 97 fulling-mills, 3 paper-mills, 395 grist-mills, and 737 saw-mills, many whiskey distilleries, and 7 iron foundries. Sugar is very generally made for use by families, from the juice of the maple-tree. In Upper Canada, in 1834, the weaving of woollen cloth was a common occupation in the cottages. There were numerous distilleries, breweries, tanneries, fulling-mills, and carding-mills. The number of grist-mills was 551, and of saw-mills 843.

The growth of this province of England has been, and will continue to be, greatly stimulated by the advantage of easy communication which is offered through the navigation of the St. Lawrence, and the magnificent chain of lakes connected with that noble river. In aid of this natural advantage, some costly works have been completed, partly by private enterprise, and partly at the expense of England. The most important of these works, the Rideau canal, cost her a million of money. It is 135 miles long, beginning at Kingston, on Lake Ontario, and ending at the foot of the Chaudiére Falls, in the Ottowa river.

The province of New Brunswick, which formerly comprised part of Nova Scotia, is bounded on the north by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the river Ristigouche; on the south by the Bay of Fundy and Chignecto Bay; on the east by Northumberland Strait and the Gulf of St. Lawrence; and on the west by the state of Maine.

The area of the province, in square miles, is 25,324.

The population was, in 1806, about 35,000; in 1816, about 56,000; in 1824, about 78,000.

The inhabitants, in 1834, were found to consist of—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites,.....	61,756	56,078	117,834
Free blacks,.....	757	866	1,623
Total,.....	62,513	56,944	119,457

During the five years from 1835 to 1839, besides the natural increase of the inhabitants, there were added to their numbers 18,957 emigrants; and it is probable that at this time the province contains a population of 160,000 souls.

The trade of New Brunswick in each year, from 1832 to 1839, was to the following amount:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£531,875	£471,527	1836,.....	£863,783	£547,720
1833,.....	549,215	469,464	1837,.....	730,563	588,397
1834,.....	567,719	491,301	1838,.....	720,042	656,052
1835,.....	621,511	577,209	1839,.....	1,011,546	690,836

The value of imports, during those eight years, exceeded that of the exports by about £1,100,000; the greater part of which sum was probably conveyed to the province by emigrants from the parent country, together with much other property not noticed by the custom-houses.

The greatest part of the exports of the province consists of timber and fish, with small quantities of grain. The value of those articles, exported in the foregoing eight years, was—

Years.	Lumber.	Fish.	Corn, &c.	Years.	Lumber.	Fish.	Corn, &c.
1832,.....	£384,900	£31,130	£5,071	1836,.....	£475,431	£25,295	£1,879
1833,.....	371,479	25,124	5,786	1837,.....	476,670	30,550	2,630
1834,.....	417,773	26,395	2,531	1838,.....	568,857	21,115	1,527
1835,.....	498,789	25,192	1,709	1839,.....	610,380	24,610	3,975

The shipping, inwards and outwards, during the years 1833 to 1839, were—

Entered.

	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign Countries.		Total.	
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1833,	452	129,089	1,615	105,775	829	68,568	6	1,460	2,902	304,892
1834,	472	137,796	1,577	92,280	562	46,637	4	868	2,615	277,581
1835,	637	192,555	1,712	86,892	615	45,852	15	3,589	2,979	328,895
1836,	512	157,862	1,919	118,394	543	56,626	19	4,178	3,002	337,060
1837,	455	156,579	1,621	108,514	421	52,614	22	4,868	2,519	322,575
1838,	567	207,907	1,878	127,648	393	38,601	36	8,703	2,874	382,859
1839,	578	208,712	1,923	118,176	944	64,053	37	8,181	3,482	399,122
				Cleared outwards.						
1833,	613	183,121	1,565	102,602	625	29,289	3	428	2,806	316,300
1834,	654	189,857	1,453	91,903	218	19,018	1	86	2,326	300,864
1835,	816	242,625	1,388	79,983	287	22,077	2	166	2,493	344,651
1836,	688	219,259	1,789	108,435	318	18,670	6	671	2,801	347,035
1837,	638	224,238	1,534	94,262	261	18,244	8	1,231	2,441	337,975
1838,	762	266,566	1,885	109,234	209	18,645	68	4,760	2,924	399,205
1839,	826	290,925	1,899	118,800	798	33,688	4	638	3,527	444,051

Ship-building is a more important branch of industry in New Brunswick than it is in Canada. During each of the ten years from 1832 to 1841, there were built and registered in the province the following number of ships :—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	68	13,682	1837,.....	94	24,957
1833,.....	86	15,450	1838,.....	116	26,931
1834,.....	87	21,803	1839,.....	162	43,091
1835,.....	93	25,309	1840,.....	156	55,618
1836,.....	94	27,712	1841,.....	116	45,555

The number and tonnage of sailing and steam vessels that belonged to the various ports of the province, at the end of 1841, were—

Sailing vessels under 50 tons,.....	335	8,508
" above "	350	106,370
	685	114,878
Steam vessels above 50 tons,.....	11	1,362
Total, ...	696	116,240

A considerable part of the shipping built in this and the other provinces of British America, are sold in England, after conveying thither their first cargo; and their value, which does not enter into our custom-house accounts, must be considered in estimating the amount of their exports.

By far the largest part of the surface of this province is still in a state of nature—nearly three-fourths remain still ungranted, in the hands of government.

The peninsula of Nova Scotia is joined to the continent of North America by an isthmus 11 miles wide, which unites the province with New Brunswick. It is bounded on the west by the Bay of Fundy; on the north by the Gut of Canso, which separates it from the island of Cape Breton; on the south and on the east by the Atlantic. The length of Nova Scotia, from east to west, is 280 miles; and its mean breadth about 60 miles.

From an early period, England claimed the sovereignty of Nova Scotia, including New Brunswick, by right of its discovery by Sebastian Cabot.

Early in the seventeenth century, an attempt was made to form a settlement on the peninsula by the French, who were driven away by the English settlers of Virginia, but it was some time before any effectual steps were taken to colonize it; and in 1667 it was ceded to France by the treaty of Buda. In 1710, it was captured by a British force; and, by the treaty of 1713, was fully ceded to Great Britain. It has since remained subject to the British crown.

The population of this province, in 1806, was 65,000; in 1816, it had increased to 73,000; in 1824, it contained 84,000 inhabitants; and in 1838, when the last census was taken, the numbers were declared to be as follows:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 6 years of age,.....	17,294	16,760	34,054
From 6 to 14 years of age,.....	17,522	16,079	33,601
Above 14 years of age,.....	51,305	36,031	87,336
Total,.....	86,121	68,870	*154,991

The returns did not include the population of two counties, which, in 1827, contained 18,176 inhabitants. There is further reason to doubt their accuracy as regards the numbers which are given, because of the great inequality in the numbers of the two sexes above 14 years. The proportions found in 1827 were 48·7 females to 51·3 males, while the above proportions give only 44·4 females to 55·6 males, and there are no peculiar circumstances attending the province which should occasion such a variation.

The trade of Nova Scotia, in each of the years from 1832 to 1839, was to the following amounts:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£765,167	£392,255	1836,.....	£733,540	£446,097
1833,.....	757,620	431,385	1837,.....	790,765	478,461
1834,.....	700,127	404,650	1838,.....	923,563	524,311
1835,.....	612,495	455,547	1839,.....	1,212,984	642,849

The shipping, inwards and outwards, in these years, was—

Inwards.

	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign Countries.		Total.	
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,	129	32,310	1,869	124,026	578	52,867	42	7,637	2,618	216,840
1833,	130	32,053	2,200	145,424	1,343	112,893	69	10,597	3,627	271,995
1834,	115	30,651	1,297	74,760	967	80,340	38	8,636	2,417	194,387
1835,	100	26,685	2,285	154,469	833	161,051	25	2,985	3,243	345,190
1836,	108	29,544	2,295	147,781	965	97,689	36	6,119	3,404	381,133
1837,	91	26,524	1,986	129,758	882	83,846	57	6,924	3,016	247,052
1838,	97	30,208	2,478	162,170	978	101,325	112	12,360	3,665	306,063
1839,	97	27,886	2,517	149,631	1,211	136,580	181	18,039	4,006	332,136
					Outwards.					
1832,	111	26,733	1,957	128,946	648	62,876	32	3,819	2,748	222,374
1833,	124	30,936	2,149	144,459	1,466	122,905	30	3,900	3,869	302,201
1834,	136	31,906	1,340	93,278	945	78,040	20	3,165	2,441	206,389
1835,	117	30,182	2,430	159,103	876	80,417	29	3,472	3,452	273,174
1836,	112	30,931	2,540	170,407	902	90,399	20	2,783	3,574	294,520
1837,	89	26,605	2,171	148,945	841	82,496	31	3,726	3,132	261,772
1838,	103	30,459	2,804	189,962	963	100,572	39	4,150	3,909	325,083
1839,	102	29,739	2,815	179,712	1,266	139,427	49	5,299	4,232	354,177

* A corrected account, including the population of Cape Breton, states the number to have been 178,237.

The amount of shipping built within the province, in each of the ten years, (1832 to 1841,) was as follows:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	95	7,313	1837,.....	142	12,659
1833,.....	104	9,475	1838,.....	182	16,966
1834,.....	108	8,956	1839,.....	198	19,435
1835,.....	100	4,531	1840,.....	199	31,207
1836,.....	114	9,280	1841,.....	167	23,904

The shipping belonging to the province, at the end of 1841, was—

	Vessels.	Tons.		Vessels.	Tons.
Sailing vessels, under 50 tons,	1,181	24,537	Steam vessels, under 50 tons,.	1	35
" above "	615	84,906	" above "	2	117
	1,796	109,343		3	152
Total sailing and steam vessels,.....				1,799	109,495

The fisheries of Nova Scotia are of the greatest importance to its prosperity, and their produce furnishes the most valuable article of its export trade. The great bulk of the fish taken is cod; but herrings, mackerel, and salmon, are also found, and cured for exportation. The value of fish, grain, and lumber, exported from the province in each year, from 1832 to 1839, was—

Years.	Fish.	Corn, &c.	Lumber.	Years.	Fish.	Corn, &c.	Lumber.
1832,...	£137,744	£12,447	£98,888	1836,...	£157,204	£18,980	£115,620
1833,...	149,046	25,652	82,142	1837,...	181,961	11,768	143,736
1834,...	127,889	12,672	122,898	1838,...	205,840	15,310	137,716
1835,...	155,801	51,660	115,148	1839,...	233,075	30,180	143,138

The province of Nova Scotia is invaluable to the parent country from the number and commodious nature of its harbors. The port of Halifax, the capital of the province, is entered by a creek sixteen miles long, which ends in a sheet of water, the area of which is ten square miles, and in which one thousand ships can ride in safety. Its entrance is effectually protected by forts, erected on small islands. Margaret's bay, also on the Atlantic coast, is two miles wide at the entrance, but widens to six miles, and is fourteen miles long. At the southwestern end of the province is St. Mary's bay, four to ten miles broad, and thirty-five miles long. The Annapolis basin is entered by the Gut of Digby, in the Bay of Fundy, and is one of the most beautiful harbors in America, extending ten miles parallel to the Bay of Fundy, with a width varying from one to four miles. The basin of Mines, lying at the extremity of the Bay of Fundy, is entered through a strait three miles wide, and within enlarges to from eight to sixteen miles, extending about fifty miles to the head of Cobequid bay. Cumberland basin, which divides the province from New Brunswick, forms also a secure and capacious harbor. Pictou harbor has a bar at its mouth, but within is safe and capacious; and there are other smaller harbors along the north shore, in Northumberland strait, which elsewhere would be deemed of importance.

A considerable number of live stock are reared in the province. At the census of 1827, there were found 14,074 horses, 127,642 horned cattle, 197,375 sheep, and 80,223 swine.

The number of acres in crop, in the same year, was 327,676; and of uncultivated land there were 9,668,801 acres. Some coal mines are worked in the district of Pictou.

The island of Cape Breton is a dependency of Nova Scotia, from which province it is divided by the Gut of Canso and St. George's bay. It is bounded on the north and northwest by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, on the south and east by the Atlantic, and on the west by St. George's bay and Northumberland strait. Its length, from northeast to southwest, is about 100 miles, and its greatest breadth is 80 miles. The population, which in 1806 was 2,513, in 1816 about 7,000, and in 1824 about 14,000, consisted in 1827 of 9,345 males, and 9,265 females—together, 18,700 souls. At this time, the island is computed to contain about 27,000 inhabitants.

The custom-house accounts do not furnish an accurate statement of the trade of this island, a great part of its imports being included in the accounts of Nova Scotia. The value not thus included, during the eight years, from 1832 to 1839, was as follows :—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£18,072	£31,891	1836,.....	£8,809	£34,460
1833,.....	10,324	28,608	1837,.....	7,591	41,337
1834,.....	10,501	22,188	1838,.....	8,350	33,546
1835,.....	11,666	31,039	1839,.....	8,027	42,859

The exports consist principally of fish and coals. Of this mineral, there are mines at Sydney, Bridgeport, and Little Bras d'Or. The quantity exported in each of the above years was—

Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.
1832,.....	21,855	1836,.....	27,759
1833,.....	15,680	1837,.....	32,701
1834,.....	8,374	1838,.....	23,550
1835,.....	9,955	1839,.....	38,199

Ship-building is carried on in the island. There were built and registered in each of the ten years, from 1832 to 1841, the following number of vessels :—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	18	1,197	1837,.....	17	1,067
1833,.....	22	1,503	1838,.....	27	1,445
1834,.....	19	1,111	1839,.....	25	1,233
1835,.....	17	1,354	1840,.....	40	2,352
1836,.....	23	1,613	1841,.....	23	2,247

There were belonging to the island, at the end of 1841—

	Ships.	Tons.
Vessels under 50 tons,.....	22	5,462
" above "	18	3,969
Total,.....	40	9,431

Prince Edward's island, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is bounded on the south and the west by Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, on the east by the island of Cape Breton, and on the north by the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It lies between 46° and 47° 10′ north latitude, and between 62° and 65° west longitude. Its extreme length is 140 miles, and its mean breadth is about 15 miles. Its area is 2,134 square miles.

This island was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1497, but no settlement was made upon it by the English, and it was for some time occupied by the French as a fishing station. It was first taken into their possession by the English in 1758, and has since remained subject to this country.

The population in 1806 was 9,676; in 1816, it had increased to

16,000; in 1827, it consisted of 23,473, (12,211 males, and 11,262 females.) In 1841, a census was taken, according to which the inhabitants were—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 16 years of age,.....	11,580	11,186	22,766
From 16 to 45 years,.....	9,456	9,324	18,780
From 45 to 60 years,.....	1,945	1,726	3,671
Above 60 years of age,.....	1,082	734	1,816
Total,.....	24,063	22,970	47,033

Among this population, there were—Deaf and dumb persons, 30; blind, 29; insane, 78.

The external trade of the island is very small. The value of imports and exports in each of the years, from 1832 to 1839, was as follows:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£1,015	£8,267	1836,.....	£1,394	£11,610
1833,.....	1,693	3,956	1837,.....	1,946	7,271
1834,.....	2,339	10,693	1838,.....	1,170	11,918
1835,.....	1,174	9,029	1839,.....	1,626	13,628

The progress of this island in improvement has been checked by an extraordinary proceeding of the English government, which, in 1767, granted very nearly the whole surface, by a gratuitous kind of lottery; the holders of the tickets to which benefits were attached being bound to pay a few shillings per annum for each one hundred acres, and to settle their lands in the proportion of one settler for every two hundred acres, within ten years from the date of the grant. These conditions have been mainly evaded. The grantees were, for the most part, permanently absent from the island, and settlers have been unwilling to embark their capital and industry in the improvement of property which they could not make their own, while, on the neighboring continent, there was an abundance of land to be had in fee simple, and on easy terms.

There are comparatively but few emigrants now resident on the island. Of the 47,033 persons living there in 1841, there were 31,561, or about two-thirds, who were born in the colony; and who, for the most part, were descended from Scotchmen.

The soil is fertile, and the climate good and healthy. The island is in a great measure free from the fogs which visit the shores of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and Nova Scotia.

The great bulk of the people are agriculturists and stock farmers. There were on the island, in 1841, 9,861 horses, 41,914 neat cattle, 73,643 sheep, and 35,521 swine; 10 breweries and distilleries, 87 grist-mills, 11 carding-mills, and 83 saw-mills.

The number of ships built and registered in the island, during each of the ten years, from 1832 to 1841, was as follows:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	42	4,094	1837,.....	44	6,715
1833,.....	44	5,000	1838,.....	46	7,099
1834, ...	34	4,315	1839,.....	69	9,986
1835,.....	40	4,888	1840,.....	77	11,098
1836,.....	35	4,347	1841,.....	63	10,797

The number and tonnage of shipping belonging to the island, at the end of 1841, were—

	Ships.	Tons.
Under 50 tons,.....	112	3,106
Above "	80	12,967
Total,.....	192	16,073

The island of Newfoundland, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, lies between 46° 40′ and 50° 37′ north latitude, and between 52° 40′ and 59° 20′ west longitude. Its extreme length, from north to south, is about 400 miles, and its greatest breadth is about 300 miles. Its area is about 35,000 square miles.

The value of this possession has been confined to the fisheries carried on upon the "banks" in its neighborhood. We know little or nothing of the interior of the country, the settlements being limited to a few stations on the shores, having reference solely to the business connected with the taking and curing of fish. Some attempts at forming such settlements were made between 1585 and 1614, but the first permanent colony was established in 1623, by Lord Baltimore, who proceeded to the island in person. Another colony followed in 1633, under the auspices of Lord Falkland; and in 1654, Sir David Kirk went there with a few settlers, authorized by a grant from the parliament. Early in the eighteenth century, the island was taken by the French; but by the treaty of Utrecht it reverted to England, and has since remained in her possession.

The population, in 1806, was 26,505; in 1816, it was 52,672; and in 1824 had rather diminished, having been 31,746 males, and 20,411 females—together, 52,157. In 1832, it contained 59,280 inhabitants. In 1836, the latest account, there were in the island 42,462 males, and 32,238 females—together, 74,705.

The value of the import and export trade of the colony in each year, from 1832 to 1839, was—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£573,872	£594,486	1836,.....	£579,799	£787,099
1833,.....	595,909	715,098	1837,.....	711,155	863,907
1834,.....	556,087	663,264	1838,.....	580,384	727,559
1835,.....	576,800	737,022	1839,.....	624,166	818,110

The greater part of the imported articles consist of various kinds of provision, clothing, salt, and fishing-tackle; and nearly the whole of the exports consist of fish, fish oil, and seal-skins.

The shipping that arrived at, and left the colony in each year, from 1832 to 1839, was as follows:—

Inwards.

	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		U. States.		Foreign Countries.		Total.	
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,	265	36,067	388	29,454	56	6,104	149	20,719	858	92,344
1833,	251	35,171	417	33,012	73	8,787	151	18,872	892	95,842
1834,	271	39,365	351	30,845	52	6,733	226	30,339	900	107,282
1835,	211	30,821	341	31,983	50	5,828	249	34,601	851	103,233
1836,	186	26,646	323	29,718	39	5,720	262	36,746	800	98,830
1837,	191	26,553	419	35,936	22	2,354	293	41,714	925	106,557
1838,	138	17,706	262	20,298	24	2,681	393	53,997	817	94,682
1839,	163	19,390	356	28,064	48	5,207	294	39,000	861	91,661
				Outwards.						
1832,	167	12,128	424	28,749	23	2,727	195	24,700	809	68,304
1833,	151	18,515	444	41,544	29	3,515	221	27,386	845	90,960
1834,	233	16,500	443	24,146	25	2,871	270	41,052	971	84,569

Outwards—Continued.

	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		U. States.		Foreign Countries.		Total.	
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1835,	156	20,040	402	46,272	26	3,448	249	32,110	833	101,870
1836,	145	18,546	376	42,144	18	2,157	246	32,710	785	95,557
1837,	158	17,630	474	50,333	9	1,239	249	32,725	890	102,927
1838,	150	16,779	437	49,763	9	732	236	27,521	832	94,795
1839,	136	15,286	419	40,217	20	1,962	259	32,830	834	90,295

A considerable number of small vessels are built in the island. The number and tonnage so constructed in each of the ten years, from 1832 to 1841, were as follows:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	34	2,767	1837,.....	25	1,164
1833,.....	35	3,029	1838,.....	31	1,541
1834,.....	26	1,546	1839,.....	17	921
1835,.....	50	2,428	1840,.....	30	1,698
1836,.....	22	1,232	1841,.....	35	1,332

The number of vessels registered in, and belonging to the island, at the end of 1841, were—

	Ships.	Tons.
Sailing vessels, under 50 tons,.....	310	10,103
" above "	415	34,273
Total,.....	725	44,376

The Hudson's Bay Territory is a tract of country extending between 49° and 70° north latitude, and from Cape Charles, in Labrador, (near 55° west longitude,) to the Rocky mountains, and the mouth of the Mackenzie river, (in 135° west longitude.) This territory is so little known, that its area cannot be given; but it is said certainly to exceed 2,000,000 square miles, and probably not to fall much short of 3,000,000 square miles.

The description of this immense tract belongs to the province of the geographer, and would be out of place in this article. The only purpose to which it is applied, is that of hunting-ground for the Hudson's Bay company, through whose instrumentality the markets of the world are yearly supplied with the most valuable furs.

The Bermudas, or Somers' islands, is a numerous group, of which only five are of any importance, viz: St. George, St. David, Long Island, Somerset, and Ireland. They are situated in the North Atlantic, 580 miles east of Cape Hatteras, in North America. The western point of the group is in 32° 15′ north latitude, and 64° 50′ west longitude. The area of the inhabited islands is 12,424 acres, or about 20 square miles. Their population, in 1806, consisted of 10,000 persons, of whom nearly one-half were slaves. In 1824, the numbers were—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites,.....	1,897	2,751	4,648
Free colored,.....	312	410	722
Slaves, ...	2,620	2,622	5,242
Total,.....	4,829	5,783	10,612

In 1839, the population consisted of—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites,.....	1,638	2,428	4,066
Colored and black,.....	2,086	2,781	4,867
Total,.....	3,724	5,209	8,933

The climate is exceedingly healthy, and an increase of the population by natural causes would certainly be experienced. The diminished number of the inhabitants must, therefore, be owing to emigration; which, considering the limited nature of the employments offered in the islands, must be resorted to by the natives.

The value of articles imported into, and exported from the Bermudas, in each year, from 1832 to 1839, was as follows:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1832,.....	£102,742	£13,784	1836,.....	£116,067	£21,967
1833,.....	86,145	13,522	1837,.....	105,794	25,945
1834,.....	77,925	8,418	1838,.....	113,589	14,899
1835,.....	100,783	21,353	1839,.....	124,884	21,258

The imports consist of a great variety of British manufactures, with some grain and flour, and miscellaneous articles left by vessels putting in for repairs. The islands afford nothing of their own produce for exportation except arrow-root, the value of which is small, and ships; the building of which was formerly more successfully followed than at present. The number and tonnage of vessels built in each of the years, from 1832 to 1839, were as follows:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,.....	10	804	1836,.....	8	631
1833,.....	3	200	1837,.....	8	514
1834,.....	no return.		1838,.....	8	850
1835,.....	6	393	1839,.....	8	523

The difference between the value of goods imported and those exported, is provided for by the government expenditure on account of convicts, about one thousand of whom have for some years been employed in constructing fortifications on the islands.

The shipping that entered and cleared from these islands in each of the years, from 1832 to 1839, was as follows:—

Inwards.

	Great Britain.		Brit. Colonies.		U. States.		Foreign Countries.		Total.	
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1832,	8	2,052	76	6,502	65	6,995	6	708	155	16,257
1833,	8	2,159	76	6,251	57	5,805	4	459	145	14,674
1834,	7	1,502	74	5,657	53	5,427	1	51	135	12,637
1835,	9	2,233	71	5,312	50	5,098	16	2,658	146	15,301
1836,	10	2,616	62	4,690	48	4,697	4	720	124	12,723
1837,	8	1,804	53	3,867	45	4,567	16	1,413	122	11,651
1838,	11	3,148	51	3,419	47	5,681	16	946	125	13,194
1839,	8	1,956	45	3,112	42	4,732	25	2,816	120	12,616
				Outwards.						
1832,	...	.....	102	9,418	48	5,501	13	1,522	163	16,441
1833,	2	364	84	7,253	50	5,874	6	646	142	14,137
1834,	1	58	83	7,256	49	4,837	9	1,101	142	13,252
1835,	10	1,900	81	7,227	43	4,509	14	1,408	148	15,044
1836,	9	1,661	68	6,063	49	5,129	...	.....	126	12,853
1837,	4	552	62	4,879	40	4,063	19	1,507	125	11,001
1838,	3	316	62	5,408	47	4,948	22	2,427	134	13,099
1839,	3	520	68	5,139	36	3,936	9	607	116	10,202

Art. II.—POST-OFFICE REFORM, AND UNIFORM POSTAGES.

The post-office department of the United States is at this moment the subject of more public discussion than any other department of the public service. One can hardly take up a newspaper, or meet an individual in conversation, without reading or hearing complaints. The conviction is gaining ground among the people, that the whole system is inefficient and oppressive—the call for *reform* is almost universal.

The department finds itself embarrassed, and its revenue deficient. The postmaster-general is attempting, though quite ineffectually, to increase its revenue, by carrying into effect the laws which give the government the monopoly of the transportation of what is called "mail matter." His attempts are only vexatious to the public, and increase the conviction that prevails, of the worthlessness of the present post-office machinery.

No one pretends that the embarrassments of the department arise from the lowness of the rates charged. The rates of postage are most unreasonably extravagant. The government are now charging twelve and a half cents for conveying a single letter one hundred miles; and, at the same time, endeavoring to monopolize the carriage of all the newspapers that pass over post-routes, each of which weighs ten times as much as the letter, for a cent or a cent and a half each, and give one-half of this to the postmaster who delivers them. This fact, alone, proves the rates to be excessive; but the most certain test is the fact that, despite the law and the postmaster-general, the people employ other and cheaper modes of conveyance, and will continue to do so until the department, if not reformed and reconstructed, and made to suit the present wants of the people, shall fall to pieces.

The plan of organization of our post-office department is essentially the same as at the time of its organization. Some inconsiderable alterations have been made, from time to time; but its administration, in its main features, is essentially the same as at the beginning. For the sake of having a clear view of its evils and burdens, we will recapitulate here the substance of the laws now in force. Under existing laws, the rates of postage are as follows:—

For a single Letter.

Under	30	miles,					6	cents.
Over	30	"	and under	80,			10	"
"	80	"	"	150,			12½	"
"	150	"	"	400,			18¾	"
"	400	"					25	"

Ship letters, delivered at the port of arrival, six cents; or elsewhere, at the ordinary postage, and two cents in addition. Two pieces of paper are double; three pieces, triple these rates; and so on.

For Pamphlets and Newspapers.

Newspapers in the state where published, or out of state, not over 100 miles,							1	cent.
"	"	"	"	over 100 miles,			1½	"
Periodical pamphlets, under 100 miles,						per sheet	¾	"
"	"	over	"			"	1½	"
Not periodical, under 100 miles,						"	4	"
"	over	"				"	6	"

The *franking privilege* is enjoyed as follows:—By the president of the United States; vice-president; heads of the departments; comptrollers

and auditors of the departments; members of the senate and house of representatives, commencing sixty days before the first session of the Congress to which they are elected, and ending with the commencement of the next Congress; postmasters, of whom there are now about fourteen thousand; clerks of the senate and house of representatives. Under the act of December 19th, 1821, certain documents are also free.

Compensation of Postmasters.—Since January 1, 1842, the compensation has been somewhat reduced. It is now a commission of 27 per cent on the first $100; between $100 and $400, 23 per cent; between $400 and $2,400, 17 per cent; above $2,400, 7 per cent. Also, 45 per cent on newspapers, at offices producing less than $500 per annum; and two cents on each free letter.

Regulations as to Dead Letters.—Letters remaining in the post-offices uncalled for, after a certain time, having been duly advertised, are sent to the dead letter office, at Washington. If, on examination, they are found to be *valuable*, measures are taken to find the parties to whom they are addressed. If not valuable, they are destroyed.

The *weight* of any one package transmitted through the mail, excepting public documents, is limited to three pounds.

Letters may be *prepaid*, or otherwise, at the option of the sender. Letters, whether paid or not, may be *marked up* at the place of delivery, if the postmaster deems them undercharged.

Such is an outline of the present system; and it is not difficult to show that the whole organization is based upon wrong principles. Its defects are of the most glaring description; and, on examination, are so evident, that the only matter of wonder is, that it has been tolerated so long.

To begin with the rates:—That they are extravagant, would seem evident at first sight, when it is considered that the government charge two-thirds as much for carrying a quarter of an ounce of paper from Boston to Albany, as the western railroad do to carry a barrel of flour over the same distance; or that Harnden & Co. could carry, between Boston and New York, (if the law permitted,) all the correspondence that now goes through the mail, for one-tenth of the price charged by the government, and get rich by so doing. This part of the system, it is admitted on all hands, is radically wrong. The enormous price of the commodity furnished the public, beyond its natural cost, as measured by the rates at which private individuals would be glad to carry on the business, not only embarrasses the department itself, but is vexatious to the public. The government will neither perform the service for what it is worth, nor allow others to do it. Consequently, an amount of postage is evaded, almost beyond belief. Facts have been made public, from time to time, showing that the extent of the evasion is immensely greater than might, at first sight, be supposed.* The extension of railroads, and steamboat navigation, afford facilities for this evasion, much greater than formerly existed.† Merchants often *club* together, and make up their packages alternately, and forward them by private hand. Between Boston and New York, a single individual will frequently convey eighty or one hundred letters. No passenger ever complains of the trouble—everybody

* See Document appended to the Report of the Postmaster-General, December, 1841, being the Report of S. R. Hobbie, Esq., on this subject.

† See Report of Postmaster-General at extra session, June, 1841.

seems to feel that he is performing a Christian duty, in aiding his neighbor to evade an enormously oppressive tax. Nothing is more common than for letters, frequently valuable ones, to be sent to a railroad station by a boy, who hands them to some good-looking stranger, with a request to carry them along, which is always cheerfully complied with. These letters seldom or never miscarry. Everything goes on as well as it would with government patronage, and $50,000 a year. Vast numbers are sent in bundles of goods, and by the expresses, without the knowledge of the carriers; and, on many lines, vast numbers *with* their knowledge. To make any exact estimate of the amount of this evasion, is obviously impossible; but, should an accurate inquiry be instituted, it would be found, no doubt, very much greater than has ever been imagined.

Government can stop this clandestine transmission of letters in only one way, viz: to carry them for a fair price; and, until it does this, the "private-hand" correspondence will increase, unless government shall find means to subject to examination all the packages, parcels, portmanteaus, and *pockets*, that are passing and repassing through every channel of communication in the country.

The conviction that the rates of postage are too high, is so universal, that argument is unnecessary. The fact is everywhere acknowledged; and, as we are here making a short-hand statement of the evils of the present system, we merely state it as the *first*.

Another evil, or, more correctly speaking, *abuse* in the present system, is the franking privilege. To what extent it is enjoyed, has been already stated. The abuse has become intolerable. Nearly fifteen thousand persons have the free use of the post-office. The amount of matter that weekly passes through the mails, free of postage, is enormous. Many persons, well qualified to form opinions upon the subject, think that, of all the matter that passes through the mails, the largest part in weight goes free. This enhances the cost of transmission upon the part that does pay, and thus operates as a tax, of the most obnoxious kind, upon the public, for the benefit of the privileged few. The wrong has become so great, the abuse so enormous, that, if the franking privilege is not abolished, the public will abolish the post-office, to all intents and purposes, by finding other modes of conveying their correspondence.

From a return made by the postmaster at Washington, it appears that, during three weeks, in 1841, the number of free letters sent from the post-office department was twenty-two thousand and thirty-eight; being over one thousand per day. From members of Congress, twenty thousand three hundred and sixty-three; being about seventy letters per day, from each member, upon an average. Of documents and franked packets, three hundred and ninety-two thousand two hundred and sixty-eight; being about one thousand from each member, in the space of three weeks —and these free letters, documents, and packets, averaged nearly an ounce and a quarter each. At this rate, the weight of the mails sent from Washington, during the three sessions of the late Congress, would be upwards of seven hundred thousand pounds; and the postage, supposing it to be charged as low as fifty cents per ounce, would amount to $575,000. This is but one item. It only gives the weight of mails sent *from* Washington. How many thousands of letters are *received by* the members of Congress, and the heads of departments? Probably not as many, but still an immense quantity.

But this is not all. Members of Congress not only frank their own letters, but, during their term of office, frank immense numbers for others. It has become so common for members to be solicited for *franks*, that it is almost uncivil to refuse. Often, the weight of letters is doubled and tripled, by this abuse. A person in Cincinnati writes a letter to a friend in Boston—he encloses it to some member of Congress in Washington, with a request that he would frank it. This makes a double letter; and, being directed to a member, goes free of the legal postage, fifty cents. The member encloses the letter to the person to whom it is directed—this makes another double letter; which, being franked by the member, goes free, also, of the additional postage. Thus government lose what, at present rates, should be worth a dollar, when a reasonable charge of a few cents would be cheerfully paid. This is no imaginary case—it has actually happened, in very many instances. The abuse of the franking privilege, by postmasters, is enormous. Partners in mercantile firms, cashiers of banks, attorneys, and others, solicit the commission of postmaster, for the purpose of covering their business letters with their frank, and thus saving themselves from an excessively burdensome tax.

The privilege is enjoyed by the members of Congress not only during their term of office, but to the commencement of the next session. There have been numerous changes among the members during the recent elections; and at this moment (November) there are nearly five hundred members, old and new, franking letters in various parts of the country, for themselves, their friends, neighbors, &c., &c.

The mere act of franking is a serious tax upon the time of members. They neither fold nor direct the pamphlets they forward to their constituents and others—they write their names, only, upon the cover; and even this is found, by many, to be an intolerable drudgery. Many members have a list of two or three thousand names, to whom, as an act of courtesy, and, in many cases, without much expectation of their being read, they send their speeches, and other documents; and, after all this folding, at public expense, this labor of franking, this overloading the mails, in many instances the documents are consigned by the receivers, unopened and unread, to the "receptacle of things lost on earth."

The franking privilege is an abuse—a tax upon the public, of the very worst kind—wrong in principle, and an unmitigated curse to the whole post-office system. It must be abolished, and the government not only pay its own postages, but that of members of Congress also, if necessary to relieve them from that burden. There is no more reason why the merchants and letter-writers of the country should pay the carriage of the correspondence of the departments of government, and the two houses of Congress, than that *they* should be taxed, exclusively, for the transmission, from place to place, of arms or public stores.

Another burden upon the mails is the dead letters. Large numbers of letters, received at the post-offices, are returned to the general post-office, as dead. Some regulation should be adopted for securing the department from loss, by returning them to the writers, or otherwise.

The transmission of newspapers, through the mails, tends to overload them, and delay their transmission. Unquestionably the government ought, in order to afford facilities for the dissemination of intelligence, to *permit* the mails to be used, under proper restrictions, for the transmission of papers at a low rate; but it should be left to the public to use the mail

or not, as best suits their convenience. It is a monstrous contradiction for the government to carry newspapers for almost nothing, to aid in the diffusion of intelligence, and, at the same time, *prohibit the diffusion of intelligence* by cheaper and more expeditious means.

Such is the present postage system of the United States. The post-office department is, as we have seen, full of abuses; and is, to the great part of the country, not what it should be—a blessing; but what ought not to be tolerated—a nuisance.

What is to be done? is the question; and fortunate will be the man who shall be able to answer it satisfactorily. If some Rowland Hill could arise, and point out a plan, founded on correct principles, and properly arranged in its details, the public, with united voice, would demand its adoption. Individuals in all parts of the country, unconnected by business or party relations, would start up at once, and labor, each in his own way, for the accomplishment of the common object. The press would demand it—public bodies would speak in its favor; and, under the influence of public sentiment, the desired end would be accomplished.

Previously to the year 1839, the state of public feeling in England, in respect to the post-office system in that country, was much the same as it is in this country, at this time. Previous to that time, the rates of postage were extravagantly high—in many instances equal to a half cent per mile, for a single letter. Despite the heavy penalties of the law, and the rigorous espionage of the post-office department, the public could not, and would not endure the burden; and the letters were, in various other ways, forwarded through the kingdom. The writer has frequently known merchants in Manchester and London associate together, and forward four or five hundred letters for a few shillings, by special messengers, which it would have cost twenty pounds to transport by mail. Schemes of all sorts were resorted to to evade the government monopoly; and so successfully, that, during twenty-five years, ending in 1838, while the population and business of the kingdom increased 40 per cent, the gross revenue of the post-office department remained nearly stationary.

So general did the feeling become that reform somewhere was necessary, that, sometime about 1836, a royal commission was appointed to "inquire into the management of the post-office department." During the sitting of this commission, a comparatively obscure individual in London published a pamphlet, in which he broached the bold scheme of conveying letters, by government, from any one part of the kingdom to any other part of the kingdom, at the rate of one penny per half ounce; and that, too, according to a series of calculations therein made, without ultimate loss to the revenue.

From the very boldness of the plan, it was likely enough that it should be quietly cast aside, as one of the whimsical schemes of the thousand and one *plan-mongers* who exist in every large community; and whose projects, ninety-nine times in the hundred, are not worth the paper they are written upon. But such was not the fact in this case. Although the project obtained no authority from the reputation of its author, who was little known to the public—although it could not encounter anything but opposition from the officers of government, who, naturally enough, look very coolly upon all new schemes, and especially upon schemes which threaten so startling an effect upon the revenue; yet, when the project was examined, the public discovered that it was founded on a correct prin-

ciple. It was examined and approved by the merchants, manufacturers, and bankers; by the clergy of the Church, and the clergy of the dissenter; by the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, and other institutions. It found universal favor; and, in the space of about two years, the theory of a private individual, promulgated at first with very little prospect of success, was universally adopted; and, by enactment of the queen, lords, and commons, became the law of the land in Great Britain. Nor was this all—it excited the attention, and commended itself to the understanding and common sense of the whole civilized world.

In this country, the burdens of the post-office department had long been complained of; but, until the adoption of Rowland Hill's plan in England, little had been thought of reform, beyond a trifling reduction of the postages—perhaps merely altering the rates from Spanish fractions to decimals. But now, that an experience of three years has demonstrated the practicability and utility of Rowland Hill's plan in England, the public attention has been more aroused here. Many persons begin to think more extensive reforms can be made than have been heretofore contemplated; and the question is, whether a plan that has worked so well in England is adapted to this country, under our different circumstances. In respect to the mail service, there are two or three popular errors extensively prevalent, which may be here mentioned, in order to save the necessity of pointing them out at greater length hereafter.

One is, that it is impossible, in the nature of the case, that government can perform this service as cheaply as individuals can do it. The popular belief is expressed by Colonel Maberley, in his evidence before the committee of the house of commons. He says—"The price at which correspondence can be conveyed by coach, (that is, private conveyance,) is so infinitely lower than any price the post-office can put upon it, it is perfectly impossible the post-office price can ever be one that shall meet the smuggler in the market." The success of the penny system in England has already proved the common opinion to be a mistaken one.

The second prevailing notion is, that the post-office should be allowed to be a source of revenue to the state, if not directly, at least sufficiently to pay its own expenses; to transport the government correspondence free, and allow to certain privileged persons that free transmission of "mail matter" that now goes under frank. As to its being made a source of revenue, either directly or indirectly, a more correct opinion was never entertained in relation to it, than that of Lord Ashburton, who stigmatized it as the "worst of taxes." Mr. S. J. Lloyd goes further. He says, "that, if there be any one thing which the government ought to do gratuitously, it is the carriage of letters." Every advocate of post-office reform should maintain, everywhere, *that the post-office, as a source of revenue,* DIRECTLY *or* INDIRECTLY, *is not to be tolerated. That the public convenience is the primary, and indeed only object; and the financial result a matter of secondary importance.*

The third erroneous notion is, that the charge of transit should be increased according to the distance. On this subject, we propose to say a few words. It is evident that the cost of transmitting letters, to the government, may be, with propriety, divided into three heads:—

1. The cost of receiving the letter at the office where it is mailed.
2. The cost of transmitting it to the office of delivery.
3. The expense of delivery, and collecting postage.

It is evident that whether the letter be sent three miles, or three thousand, the expenses attending it, under the first and third of these heads, are the same, and in no way increased or diminished by the distance.

We have then, only, to consider the second head.

It would, indeed, seem evident, at first sight, that the cost of transmitting any article must be increased, in proportion to the distance travelled over. But we apprehend this will not prove correct in respect to lighter articles, more particularly in reference to so very light an article as a letter. In respect to these, or any articles of extreme lightness, the *cost diminishes in proportion as the quantity increases.* For example, suppose, between Boston and Roxbury, (three miles,) there were no conveyance except by special messengers. If one be employed to carry a letter, his charge would be at least half a dollar. Now, employ the same porter to convey a thousand letters, to be received at one place in Boston, and delivered at one place in New York, (two hundred and twenty miles,) and his charge would not amount to a cent and a half for each. We think this statement establishes our position, which we repeat—*that the cost of transit* (the second head of the expense) *is not in proportion to the distance travelled over, but the number of letters that travel together.* But, supposing it to be objected that an unfair example is adduced in the way of an illustration, by taking one of the greatest mail routes for that purpose; and that, because government can afford to carry letters between Boston and New York for two cents each, it can afford to do so through all the routes in the interior. Well, what then? Take, for example, the route between Northampton and Brattleborough, where the expenses of transit may be large, and the letters comparatively few. It only proves that it costs *more* to transmit letters forty miles than it does two hundred and twenty, and makes the position still stronger, that it is not distance that governs the cost, but the quantity carried.

It can, we believe, be demonstrated that the government can afford to carry letters from Boston to New Orleans cheaper than it can afford to carry them from Bangor, Maine, to Montpelier, Vermont, a twentieth part of the distance, but points between which there is comparatively little correspondence. It can be demonstrated, that the cost of transmission, heretofore considered the principal item, would, (if the government, by carrying at a low rate all the present correspondence and the increase that low rates would induce,) be so exceeding minute on each letter, that *absolute uniformity would be nearer to exact justice than any differences in rates could possibly be.* Therefore, if the cost of transmission, merely, should be uniform, and justly so, as the other two heads of expense ought from their nature to be, *let the rate be uniform.*

This view of the subject is established by the inquiries made by the committee of inquiry of the house of commons, who, after a careful and laborious investigation, found the cost per letter of all letters transmitted through the British mails, to be as follows, viz:—

Cost of reception and delivery,.....	0.57
Cost of transmission,.....	0.19
Total, ...	.76.100

of a penny. The cost of reception and delivery being much increased in England by their extensive penny-post system, which we have not in this country.

If the number of letters should be increased, it would reduce the item of nineteen-hundredths still lower; but whether reduced or not, the cost per letter, for mere transmission, was found to be so small, as to prove the justice of uniformity of change without respect to distance.

It will be seen, however, that uniformity of *rates* is based upon uniformity in *weight* of letters; and, where the weight of the letter is in excess of the standard allowed, the rates ought to be doubled, or trebled, or still more increased, as the case may be. But the principle of increase should be by weight, and not by the number of pieces, irrespective of weight, as is now the case. It is clearly unjust to the letter-writer to compel him to pay, on a sheet of thin paper and bank-note, double the rate of the coarse foolscap sheet that travels in its company, and weighs double. No feature of the law tends so much to injure the department as this; for seldom does the sender of a double or treble letter employ the post-office, if he can avoid it. Of the innumerable bank-notes, bills of exchange, and commercial obligations, that travel in letters, a very small proportion go through the mails. The limits of this article will permit no more than an allusion to this subject; but its injustice to the public is self-evident, as also its evil effect upon the revenue of the post-office.

Should an investigation be made, and should it be proved by the result that a uniform rate would come as near, or nearer, to exact justice, than differential rates, a question would then arise what that rate ought to be. To make the calculations necessary to determine this question, is beyond the power of any individual, who has not at his command the information and statistics that can be furnished by the post-office department only. A moment's reflection, however, will be sufficient to show that this rate would be found much lower than is generally supposed—certainly below *five cents*, for a single letter.

The present revenue of the department is probably about four and a half millions annually, from all sources. This is furnished by the postage collected on newspapers, pamphlets, and letters.

By the booksellers' memorial to Congress, 1842, it is stated that the quantity of newspapers annually printed in the United States is three hundred millions. If one-ninth, only, of these pass through the mails, it would be thirty-three millions annually. The postage on these papers, with the pamphlets, &c., might leave the amount of four millions of dollars to be derived from letter postage. This sum, at an average postage of twelve and a half cents, would represent thirty-two millions of letters.

The franked letters and free matter are estimated, by many persons, to amount to more than the postage-paying part of the mail. Whether it is so in number, or not, it undoubtedly does engross a great share of the *weight*. But, estimating the value of it at the same, it would give thirty-two millions of letters more.

These three amounts, added together, would give ninety-seven millions; or, roundly stated, the transmission of mail matter, of all kinds, may amount to one hundred millions of letters, &c., per annum.

If this estimate is anywhere near the truth, what does it show? It shows that, to transmit one hundred millions of letters, papers, &c., through the country, the government pay as follows:—

For compensation of postmasters,.....	$1,015,000
" incidentals,.....	330,000
Total, as taken from the report of 1841,.....	$1,345,000

These two items are the cost of *reception and delivery;* and, averaged upon the number of one hundred millions, gives the cost of each $1\frac{35}{100}$ cents, nearly.

The amount paid for transportation of the mails, from the same report, was, for the year, $3,145,000. This is the cost of *transportation;* and, averaged upon one hundred millions, gives the cost of each $3\frac{145}{1000}$ cents, nearly.

The two items make, together, the total cost four and a half cents. The newspapers, now paying *under* four and a half cents, being taken into the account, would carry the letter postage above it; but we are confident that an accurate investigation would prove that the average cost of reception, transmission, and delivery, for single letters, to the government, would be *under five cents each.* But, supposing the postage to be now reduced to the uniform rate of four or five cents for letters under half an ounce in weight, franking abolished, and payment in advance required for everything sent through the mails, this cost would, no doubt, be materially reduced.

It is evident that mail contractors base their contracts upon the quantity of matter they may, under ordinary circumstances, be expected to carry. A railroad, for example, appropriates a car to the mails. If the car is empty, or full, the charge to the government is the same; the cost per letter being very high when the bags are empty, and very low when the bags are full. If the franking privilege were abolished, not only would room be provided for an immense increase of paying matter, without increasing the present weight of the mails, but the number of letters, being increased four-fold, would probably add little or nothing to the present cost of transportation.

Would the quantity of letters increase? Undoubtedly it would, at the low rate of four or five cents. At this rate, the government might reasonably expect to carry as follows:—

1. Newspapers, as at present—call this	¼
2. Letters now paying postage,	¼
3. Free matter, now carried by the mail,	¼
Present amount of the mails,	1
4. Letters now sent by private hand, evasion, by writing on newspapers, &c., estimated at double the number sent by the mails, but call it same as those now paying,	¼
5. Increased correspondence, in consequence of low rates, from persons at present writing letters, would double the present paying letters	¼
Total from present letter-writers,	1½
Add, for mercantile circulars, advertisements, catalogues, invoices of goods, and from the poorer classes of the community, who would be glad to write occasionally, but who, on account of the high postages, do not write at all,	½
Total,	2

This estimate is undoubtedly much below the truth. The results, in the English post-office, show a much greater increase than is here supposed. But, if the quantity of paying matter were only doubled, it would be found that, if the present cost to the government is four and a half cents per letter, it would, by doubling the quantity, be reduced to two and a quarter; or, in other words, the government could carry the newspapers, as at present, for one cent, and the letters for three cents, from any one part of the country to any other part.

All experience goes to show that a reduction in price of any commodity, universally desired by the people, increases its consumption in a greater proportion than the price is reduced. It would be interesting if the statistics of different railroad and steamboat companies, who have carried passengers for low fares, could be collected and analyzed, so as to discover the proportion in which numbers increase as price decreases. The North river steamers would be found to carry a thousand passengers at a trip, at a fare of twenty-five cents; while, at two dollars, they would scarcely carry a hundred. There is a curious propensity in people to avail themselves of any facility that happens to be cheap—the very *cheapness* of the article being a temptation to enjoy it, that is frequently irresistible. There is an illustration of this principle in the letter of the Irishman to his son, when the postage from London to Dublin was reduced from one shilling to one penny. "Write often," says he; "every letter you write saves eleven pence."

We copy here some statistics, brought forward in England at the time the reform of the post-office was in agitation, for the purpose of showing that the reduction of the rate would not only increase the quantity of letters, *but not diminish the income of the department.* They establish both points conclusively.

In 1781, Mr. Pitt made a reduction in the duty on tea, which reduced the price about one-third. The following is a statement of the effects of a diminished price upon consumption:—

Year.	Quantity of Tea sold.	Average prices.	Total expenditure in Tea.
1781,.....	5,031,649 lbs.		
1782,.....	6,495,518 "	6*s.*	£5,221,352
1783,.....	5,877,340 "		
	Duty reduced in 1784.		
1785,.....	14,921,893 lbs.		
1786,.....	15,943,682 "	4*s.*	9,417,699
1787,.....	16,222,923 "		

In 1837, the rates of admission to the tower of London were reduced from 3*s.* to 1*s.*, and in 1839, further reduced to 6*d.* The following is a statement of the effect of these reductions, taking the time from May to November, in each year:—

Year.	Rate.	No. of visiters.	Total receipts.	Rate of increase of visiters from 1837.
1837,.....	3*s.*	7,533	£1,130	.....
1838,.....	1*s.*	31,333	1,566	Over 3 for 1.
1839,.....	6*d.*	56,213	1,405	Nearly 7½ for 1.

About five years since, the stamp duty on newspapers in England was reduced, we believe, from 4*d.*, with 20 per cent discount, to one penny, with the following effect upon their circulation:—

	No. of papers sold.	Price.	Cost to public.
Twelve months before the reduction,.....	35,576,056	7 *d.*	£1,037,634
" after "	53,496,207	4¾	1,058,779

At the same time, the duty upon advertisements was also reduced, and with the following effect:—

	No. of advertisements.	Average cost.	Tot. cost to the public.
Annual number before reduction,.....	1,010,000	6*s.*	£303,000
" after "	1,670,000	4*s.*	334,000

To these might be added the statistics of the railroads in this country and in England; which, as before remarked, find success to result from the very principle we are recommending for the post-office. We have not at hand statistics of the roads in this country; and if we had, it would not be necessary to copy them here, as enough has been said to establish our position. The returns of some of the English railways are before us, and we copy from them the following statement:—

RAILROADS AT REDUCED, OR LOW FARES.

	Income per week.		Gain.
	1842.	1843.	
London and Brighton,.....per mile	£80	£102	26 per cent.
London and Blackwall,.....	247	315	27 "
Sheffield and Manchester,.....	29	60	101 "
Southeastern,.....	28	55	99 "
Railroads at high fares.			
Midlane Counties,.....per mile	£56	£50	12 per cent.
Eastern "	37	59	7½ "
North Union,.....	60	49	20 "

The management of the post-office, by the government, is a close monopoly. All competition is, by the hand of power, driven, or attempted to be driven, from the field. It is the only remnant of a system of monopolies which existed in earlier ages; but which, before advancing knowledge and wisdom, have been, one after another, abolished. It is a question with many whether this should not be abolished; but, properly managed, the people would, no doubt, be contented to let it remain. All the evidence collected by the British government in their investigations, previous to the adoption of the new system, tended to establish the fact that, at rates approximating towards those at which private individuals could afford to do the business, the government establishment would be universally preferred. Let it remain, then, but on condition only that the government, in carrying on their trade, conduct their operations on sound commercial principles, and sell the commodity they offer at its fair natural price.

Our railroads, as before stated, depend for success upon the very principle we have stated in respect to the post-office. Their income is enhanced, not by the high rates they can charge each single passenger, but by the numbers they can carry at once. Thus these corporations have laid out their money by millions, upon a calculation of profit, based upon this principle; and experience has everywhere demonstrated its correctness, by the success that has attended them in their business of carrying passengers and freight at rates lower than were ever dreamed of before their introduction. And shall the government, with the vast means and resources of the country at its command, hesitate at an experiment that a private company would laugh at?

What is wanted, is a complete remodelling of the whole post-office system. We want a much-reduced and uniform rate of postages. We want the entire abolition of franking, and free transmission of every kind. We want, on the score of economy, prepayment of postages, by stamps or otherwise, so that every man may be his own M. C., and frank his own letters. We want the principle of increase in the rates to be that of *weight* only. We want the whole system to be so arranged that its benefits may be enjoyed by all classes, the poor as well as the rich, and

become what it should be—the life-blood of our social and commercial system.

What shall be done? Are we to wait the tardy movements of government, and of politicians who are more busy at president-making than in promoting the public welfare? Let the people put their own shoulders to the wheel, and cease to call upon Hercules. Let meetings be called in the principal cities, and committees of correspondence appointed. Let a committee of inquiry be raised from the best qualified men in the country, and funds provided, by a very small contribution from citizens who feel an interest in the matter, to enable them to make a thorough investigation of the whole system, and collect statistics which will expose the abuses of that system. Let facts be published to awaken the public mind, so that a memorial to Congress shall be backed by the strong power of the public voice, and the work will be done.

Art. III.—OUR TRADE WITH THE BRITISH COLONIES.

The commerce of the United States with the colonies of Great Britain, has long been considerable in its amount. During the earliest period of our own colonial existence, our trade with these colonies was of no little value; and, since we have arrived at the position of an independent country, it has constituted a subject of strenuous negotiation between the two governments. It is the design of this article to trace briefly the progress of our commercial relations with those colonies, as it is now a matter of pecuniary interest to the commerce of the nation.

By our commerce with the British colonies, we mean the commercial intercourse which is carried on by our own country with the British West India islands, the settlements upon the South American continent, and their continental and insular North American possessions. It is well known that, before the revolution, the proximity of the islands of the West Indies to the shores of the United States laid a natural foundation for a beneficial commerce, that was long carried on between their respective ports. During the years 1771, 1772, and 1773, the colonies now forming our country had exported to those islands freights to the annual amount of about three millions of dollars, for which we received rum and molasses to the value of about two millions, our own being the only market opened to the West India planters for those articles, as there was a very small consumption of them in England. About one million of dollars, the balance of the trade, was annually paid in specie; the articles given for it, however, being necessaries of life, such as bread, salted provisions, fish, lumber, boards and shingles, hoops and staves, hogs and poultry, horses and oxen. The continent of North America, indeed, appeared formed by nature to supply those articles to the islands, because they could not produce them with advantage to themselves. The capital expended upon the cultivation of sugar and coffee, would have been unprofitably invested in the production of hoops or staves, grass or grain. They could not be supplied from the mother country, to whose ports their trade was principally confined. Besides, the voyage was much longer; the charges of freight and insurance were greater. Great Britain could not even produce her own lumber for herself; the grain and flour frequently suffered

damage during the long voyages between the two countries; and only the choicest articles of West India production, its coffee and sugar, could be received in payment. Accordingly, the commerce between our country and those islands had not only grown to considerable amount before our own declaration of independence, but, since that time, it has been regarded by our people as of great value.

On the termination of war, William Pitt, in March, 1783, introduced into the house of commons a bill for the regulation of the trade and intercourse between the two countries, established on that broad and liberal basis which, as a nation, we have always advocated, in our commercial intercourse with other nations; but the proposed friendly arrangement between us was superseded by an order in council, bearing date the second of July, during the same year. This order was continued, by annual acts of parliament, and orders in council, until February, 1788—a prohibition which was established by a permanent statute, on the second of April of that year. By this prohibition, the trade between the United States and the British colonies was restricted to a small number of articles, that were to be carried exclusively in British ships.

At this point, let us take a brief view of the commercial policy of the British government, since its mercantile resources were deemed of sufficient importance to be husbanded. England, as well as our own country, has deemed it prudent to establish for itself its own laws for the protection of its agriculture, manufactures, and especially of its commerce; but it is equally true that, while our commercial regulations have been marked by a liberal and conciliatory spirit, her own have been rigid; and, we may add, somewhat grasping. The basis of her policy is easily discerned in the navigation act of 12th Charles II., chap. xviii., entitled "an act for the encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation." The substance of that act is to provide for the monopoly of the carrying trade to and from the possessions of Great Britain, in British ships, and to secure other important advantages for British commerce. The design of those navigation laws cannot be better shown than in the language of Mr. Huskisson, who was foremost in his efforts in behalf of the commercial interests of his country. In a speech delivered in the house of commons on the 12th of May, 1826, that minister remarked—"Our navigation laws have a two-fold object: first, to create and maintain in this country a great commercial marine; and, secondly, (an object not less important in the eyes of statesmen,) to prevent any one other nation from engrossing too large a portion of the navigation of the rest of the world. It is the broad principle upon which the navigation system of this country was founded; and it is obvious that the motives for adopting that system were, first, that such portion of the carrying trade of foreign countries as does not devolve to British shipping, should be divided as equally as possible amongst the other maritime states, and not engrossed by any one of them in particular; and, secondly, that countries entertaining relations of commerce with this country, and not possessing shipping of their own, should export their produce to England in British ships, only, instead of employing the vessels of any third power." The policy whose object was thus expressed, was the real cause of our own revolution; for the plans that were urged upon foreign states were also carried out against our trade, when we were colonies of Great Britain. In this avowed object of the British navigation laws, by one of the most distinguished ministers of the

British empire, we find the principles that have, down to the present period, marked the negotiations of that foreign power with this country.

The consequences of this navigation act of Great Britain, are obvious. In a speech delivered in the house of representatives, on the 14th of January, 1794, by James Madison, of Virginia, in support of his propositions for the promotion of the commerce of the United States, he remarked that, "to illustrate this observation, he referred to the navigation act of Great Britain; which, not being counterbalanced by any similar acts on the part of rival nations, had secured to Great Britain no less than eleven-twelfths of the shipping and seamen employed in her trade. It is stated that, in 1660, when the British act passed, the foreign tonnage was, to the British, as one to four; in 1700, less than one to six; in 1725, as one to nineteen; in 1750, as one to twelve; in 1774, nearly the same. At the commencement of the period, the tonnage was but ninety-five thousand two hundred and sixty-six tons; and, at the end of it, one million one hundred and thirty-six thousand one hundred and sixty-two."* To counteract a policy attended with such results, required, on our part, extraordinary vigilance; but, with the exercise of our utmost watchfulness, we have not shielded ourselves from the inconveniences attending the exclusive policy to which we have alluded.

To this system of Great Britain, in its tenacious adherence to the spirit of the navigation act, we have opposed a policy of liberality and conciliation, particularly respecting the colonial trade with that country. The first measure of prominent importance, connected with the colonial trade, was the commercial treaty of November, 1794, negotiated by Mr. Jay. By this treaty, the right of Great Britain to levy countervailing duties was reserved; for our discriminating duties, inasmuch as they operated upon British navigation, were counteractive in the exclusion of our vessels from the British colonial ports, while the treaty secured the admission of our vessels to those ports.

As early as the 3d of December, 1816, President Madison, in his message to Congress, exhibits, in a condensed form, our relations with Great Britain. "The depressed state of our navigation," he remarks, "is to be ascribed, in a material degree, to its exclusion from the colonial ports of the nation most extensively connected with us in commerce, and from the indirect operation of that exclusion. Previous to the late convention at London, between the United States and Great Britain, the relative state of the navigation laws of the two countries, growing out of the treaty of 1794, had given to the British navigation a material advantage over the American, in the intercourse between the American ports and British ports in Europe. The convention of London equalized the laws of the two countries, relating to those ports; leaving the intercourse between our ports and the ports of the British colonies subject, as before, to the respective regulations of the parties. The British government, enforcing now regulations which prohibit a trade between its colonies and the United States in American vessels, whilst they permit a trade in British vessels, the American navigation loses accordingly; and the loss is augmented by the advantage which is given to the British competition over the American, in the navigation between our ports and British ports in Europe, by the circuitous voyages enjoyed by the one, and not enjoyed by the other."

* See Mr. Madison's Speech on our Commerce.

"The reasonableness of the rule of reciprocity, applied to one branch of the commercial intercourse, has been pressed, on our part, as equally applicable to both branches; but it is ascertained that the British cabinet declines all negotiations on the subject, with a disavowal, however, of any disposition to view in an unfriendly light whatever countervailing regulations the United States may oppose to the regulations of which they complain. The wisdom of the legislature will decide on the course which, under these circumstances, is prescribed, by a joint regard to the amicable relations between the two nations, and to the just interests of the United States."

In a speech delivered by the Honorable Rufus King, in the senate of the United States, in 1818, on the American navigation act, he then stated that the amount of the annual exports from the United States to the English West India colonies was estimated at four millions of dollars.* He remarked, moreover, that we imported annually upwards of six millions of gallons of West India rum, more than half of which came from the English colonies, besides seven millions of gallons of molasses; and, since every gallon of molasses yielded, by distillation, a gallon of rum, the rum imported, added to that distilled from molasses, probably was equal to twelve millions of gallons.

The commercial articles of Mr. Jay's treaty expired in the year 1803, and England passed a new act of parliament concerning the American navigation and trade. That act maintained the exclusion of American vessels from the intercourse between the United States and the English colonies, and confines the same to English vessels. Numerous overtures have been made, moreover, on our side, with a view to the placing of our intercourse with that country upon grounds of reciprocal advantage, but without success. In consequence of the depressed condition of our navigation and trade, and the embarrassment of the public finances, the general convention of 1787 was called, which resulted in the establishment of the constitution of the United States. Laws were immediately passed by the first Congress that was assembled under the new constitution, for the purpose of equalizing our navigation and trade with foreign nations; and a small discrimination in duties of impost and tonnage was at that time made. A number of resolutions on the subject of navigation and trade, having especial reference to the refusal of England to enter into an equal commercial treaty with us, and aiming to countervail her exclusive system, besides other resolutions bearing more directly upon the policy of England, were proposed; but those measures were superseded by the mission of Mr. Jay to England, on account of our dissatisfaction of their commercial system.

By the act of 1815, the commercial intercourse between the United States and the British possessions in Europe was established upon just and equal terms, and the United States desired to place its trade with the British American colonies upon the same footing. The government of Great Britain would not, however, consent to this arrangement; and the commerce between the two last-named countries was left in the same situation as before. Since that time, although it has been the wish, on the part of this country, and the avowed desire, on the part of Great Britain, to place our commercial relations upon a just and equal footing, no sub-

* Mr. King's Speech.

stantial measures have been passed to place it upon that ground. From that period, down to the year 1827, although repeated endeavors had been made to conclude a reciprocal intercourse, they had been altogether unavailing; and their respective acts had resulted in the almost entire suppression of the trade.

A brief review of the negotiations of the two governments upon the subject, may, perhaps, be of some value. In 1817, a proposition was submitted to our minister at London, by the secretary of state for foreign affairs, upon the subject of our trade with the British colonies, but this proposition was not accepted; and, in order to evade its terms, we resorted to countervailing measures. During the following year, (1818,) an act of Congress, concerning navigation, was passed; and it provided that our ports should be closed against British vessels coming from any British colony which was closed against vessels of the United States; and all British vessels sailing with cargoes from our ports were laid under bonds to land their cargoes in some port or place other than a colony closed against vessels of the United States. To this, followed the act of Congress of the 15th of May, 1820, by which the ports of the United States were, after a certain day, closed against British vessels coming or arriving by sea from any British colonial port in the West Indies or America; and bonds were also required from British vessels sailing from our ports, not to land their cargo in any British American colony.

In May, 1822, Congress authorized the president, on his being satisfied that the British colonial ports were opened to the vessels of the United States, to open our ports to British vessels, upon terms of reciprocal advantage. An act of parliament, of June of the same year, which the prior act anticipated, repealed several former acts, and opened certain colonial ports to American vessels, laden with certain articles of our own produce, upon specified conditions, and confining the intercourse to the direct trade between the United States and the colonies.* On the passage of this act, the president, by proclamation, opened the ports of the United States to British vessels engaged in the colonial trade, subject to a like restriction, and upon terms that were deemed of reciprocal and equal advantage, and at the same time retaining our discriminating duties. The retaining these discriminating duties was, however, made the subject of complaint, on the part of that government; but this measure was defended by us, on the ground that it was only a fair equivalent for the protective duties imposed on American produce in all of the British colonial ports, and the export duties in some of them.

A more important act was passed by Congress, in March, 1823, which exercised an important bearing upon the trade of the two countries. At that period, we were in the possession of a valuable trade with the colonies, in virtue of the last acts of the two governments, to which allusion has been made. The substance of this last act was the continuation of the suspension of the acts of 1818 and 1820, which had been effectuated before by the proclamation of the president, and opened our ports to a direct trade only with such of the British colonial ports as had been opened to us by the act of parliament of June, 1822; subject, at that time, to the payment, by British vessels, of our alien or discriminating duties. It

* See the letter of Honorable Martin Van Buren to Mr. M'Lane, on the subject of our trade with the British colonies, July 20th, 1829.

put forth a claim that no higher duties should be imposed upon the productions of the United States, in the British colonial ports, than upon those of Great Britain herself, or her other colonies, which had been levied for the protection of their own produce. It restricted the trade to those British vessels coming directly from the colonial ports, and touching at no other port after they had left the colony. It declared that its provisions should continue in force with the continuance of the privileges granted to our vessels by the act of parliament of June, 1822; and that, if at any time afterward trade was prohibited to us by Great Britain, its provisions should cease, and the acts of 1818 and 1820 should be revived.

Although various efforts were made to conclude this vexed question of our colonial trade, no satisfactory measures appear to have been adopted; and, on the 27th of July, 1826, the king, by an order in council, based upon the act of parliament of July, 1825, directed that the trade and intercourse between the United States and the greater part of the British colonial ports should cease from the coming December. On the refusal of the British government to enter into any new negotiations upon the subject, the president, by proclamation of the 17th of March, 1827, declared the acts of Congress of 1818 and 1820 revived, and our commerce with the British colonies, permitted by act of parliament of 1822, prohibited. In 1827, Mr. Gallatin was authorized to consult the government of Great Britain respecting the renewal of the colonial trade, by separate acts of legislation.* All negotiation upon the matter was, however, declined by the British government; and this indisposition to enter into any arrangement continued down to the year 1829. By the arrangement negotiated by Mr. M'Lane, under the instructions of Mr. Van Buren, our relations with the British colonies are established upon their present basis through the act of Congress of 1830, which is now in force.†

We now propose to consider the practical effect of this arrangement upon our existing commerce with the British colonies in America. Our trade with those colonies is regulated by the act of Congress of the 29th of May, 1830; the president's proclamation, of October 5th, 1830, the British order in council, of November 5th, 1830, and succeeding orders, enlarging the number of warehousing and free ports. The trade is limited to the following places:—Jamaica: Kingston, Savanna la Mar, Montego bay, Santa Lucia, Antonio, Saint Ann, Falmouth, Maria, Morant bay, Annotto bay, Black river, Rio Bueno, Port Morant, Old Harbor; Grenada: Saint George; Dominica: Roseau; Antigua: Saint Johns; Trinidad: San Josef; Tobago: Scarborough; Tortola: Road Harbor; New Providence: Nassau; Crooked Island: Pittstown; Saint Vincent: Kingston; Bermuda: Port Saint George, Port Hamilton; Bahamas: Any port where there is a custom-house; Barbadoes: Bridgetown; New Brunswick: Miramichi, Saint Johns, Saint Andrews, Port of Magaguadavic, Welch Pool, in the island of Campo Bello; Anguilla: Anguilla; Nova Scotia: Halifax, Pictou, Digby, Arichat, Windsor, Parsborough, Cumberland, Shelburne, Lunenburg; Canada: Quebec; Newfoundland: Saint Johns, Harbor Grace; Demarara: Georgetown; Berbice: New Amsterdam;

* See the letter of Honorable Henry Clay to Mr. Gallatin, upon the subject of the colonial trade, April 11th, 1827.

† For interesting views upon this subject, we would refer our readers to Mr. Cushing's Report, made during the last session of Congress.

Saint Lucia: Castries; Saint Kitts: Basseterre; Nevis: Charlestown; Montserrat: Plymouth; Cape Breton: Sydney; Prince Edward's Island: Charlottetown, Georgetown.

By the act of 3d and 4th William IV., cap. 59, sec. 2, it is declared that no goods shall be imported into any of the above-named possessions, excepting "the free ports aforesaid;" and, if thus imported, these goods shall be forfeited. At those places, all vessels of the United States are admitted, on paying the same tonnage duties and charges as British vessels, provided their cargoes be the produce of the United States, and are imported directly from the United States. Whether laden, or in ballast, these vessels are permitted to clear out for any foreign country. The productions of the United States, (if similar articles from other foreign countries are not entirely prohibited,) are admitted on the payment of the same duties and charges as similar articles, the produce of any other foreign country, (when imported in American vessels,) subject to the same conditions (as to the character of the vessel and crew) as when imported into the British possessions of Europe. The importation of all articles from the United States, except those of their own growth, produce, or manufacture, is prohibited. The same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, are granted upon exportations, whether the goods be exported, or originally imported, in American or British vessels. In the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, vessels and boats of the United States are admitted by paying the same tonnage duties and charges as British vessels and boats in the ports of the United States.

The warehousing system was adopted in 1803, but it has been recently much extended by subsequent British acts, which took effect at a later period. Under this system, goods which are imported into places denominated "free ports," are allowed to be deposited in the public warehouses in the United Kingdom and the British colonial possessions, chargeable with rent and storage, without payment of duties on importation, until they are withdrawn for home consumption. If warehoused for re-exportation, no duties are paid, the charges for rent and storage, only, being exacted; for which charges, the merchandise is made liable—thus doing away the former system of drawbacks, and the immediate payment of duties upon importation. In order to secure to British vessels a larger share of the carriage of the United States to her own colonies, the following places are among those which have been created free warehousing ports:—Jamaica: Kingston, Montego bay, and Falmouth; Saint Vincent: Kingston; Nova Scotia: Halifax, Pictou, Liverpool,* Yarmouth,* Digby, and Arichat; New Providence: Nassau; Saint Kitts: Port of Basseterre; Grenada: Port of Saint George; Tortola: Port of Road Harbor; Trinidad: San Josef; Canada: Quebec, Kingston,* and Montreal;* Demarara: Georgetown; Dominica: Roseau; Newfoundland: Saint Johns, and Harbor Grace; New Brunswick: Saint Johns, Saint Andrews, and Welch Pool, Campo Bello; Bahamas: Grand Key, Turk's Island; Barbadoes: Bridgetown; Bermuda: Port Saint George; Cape Breton: Sydney; Nevis: Charlestown; Island of Mauritius: Port Lewis; Saint Lucia: Astries.

The advantages that are secured by this system to British commerce,

* For the warehousing of goods brought by land or inland navigation, as also those imported by sea.

are, that all goods admitted to warehouse, in either one of the colonies, may be conveyed thence, in British vessels exclusively, to other British colonies, at a lower rate of duty than similar goods imported in our own vessels to such colonies, direct from the United States.*

It cannot be denied that the direct consequence of the law of 1830, and the proclamation of the president, that was issued in October of the same year, has been to place in British hands the great bulk of the colonial trade. By them, our own ports were opened to their commerce; we trusting to the passage of correspondent acts, in order to place us upon an equal and reciprocal footing. We can readily perceive how our own legislation was met on their side. No sooner had the proclamation of the president reached England, than an act was passed by the British parliament, permitting the articles of flour, wheat, corn, grain, rice, live stock, beef, pork, hams, or bacon, wood, and lumber, to be imported from the United States into the Canadas, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, free of duty, while they were subject to a high rate of duty if imported directly from the United States into the British West Indies. For example: the duty upon flour was $1 33 per barrel, $5 per barrel upon beef and pork, $6 50 per thousand upon white-pine lumber, $5 50 per thousand upon yellow-pine lumber, and that upon other specified articles in the same proportion. The design of that law cannot be more clearly stated than in the words of Mr. Herries, the president of the board of trade, in debate in parliament; namely—"to give encouragement to a supply of the West India islands by the North American colonies of Great Britain, instead of by the United States, or by any other country."

The course of the trade which this measure has opened to Great Britain, is easily traced. A very large amount of articles of our own produce are ordered to be shipped to the British provinces. These are sent in British vessels nominally, landed naturalized, and forwarded directly to the West Indies; and, inasmuch as there are a number of ports in the provinces, within two days' sail from Boston, where this can be done, it is almost equivalent to a direct voyage from our own ports to the West Indies. Flour, and other articles of our produce, are also transported in large quantities into the interior of Canada, across the lakes. There is another mode by which British shipping is favored. British vessels sometimes proceed to our southern ports, and either take in freights to Europe, or cargoes of yellow-pine lumber, return to the provinces, and naturalize the cargo, and carry it to England. A favorite voyage is also frequently undertaken, which is termed the triangular voyage. It appears that, formerly, the British vessels went to the colonies in ballast, or partially laden, where they remained a long time for the preparation of their cargoes, with which they returned to England. Now, they take full freights to the United States, thence freights to the West Indies, and thence full freights to England; or else they proceed with freights from England to the West Indies, whence, in a few days, they arrive at our southern ports, where they obtain full freights for Europe. Thus, in the direct freights to and from our own ports, the British vessels have a decided advantage over us. So great are the advantages possessed by British vessels in our trade, that our own citizens are, to a considerable extent, part owners of

* For the facts connected with the warehousing system, we are indebted to the Report of the Secretary of State (Mr. Webster) on the commerce of the United States.

British ships. The result is, if we look at our northern ports, we find that British ships constitute a no inconsiderable part of the tonnage; while it was stated, on March 3d, 1842, that half of the vessels in the port of Charleston were, at that time, British. In Savannah, three-fourths of the whole freighting fleet were of the same nation. In Mobile, more than half were British, and in New Orleans about one-fourth; all of which are enabled to undercarry our own vessels. It was the opinion of intelligent merchants at the south, moreover, that at least one-half of all the cotton exported from the United States, in 1842, would be shipped in British vessels. Besides, our own vessels are excluded from the plaster-quarries of Nova Scotia; and the extent of the British trade at the north may be judged from the fact that, during one year, five hundred and eighty-seven British schooners entered the port of Boston.*

It is alleged, moreover, that the productions of the British provinces, to a large amount, such as wood, potatoes, and other like articles, are imported into the United States, to the manifest injury of our own people; and that, in the same mode, the product of the British fisheries, taken along the coast in the British provinces, under various circumstances of advantage to British fishing-vessels, from which American vessels are excluded, are imported by them into the United States, to the great prejudice of the fisheries of our own country.

It is by such a policy that the enormous increase of British tonnage, in the ports of the United States, has been produced, since the passage of the act of Congress of 1830, as well as the increase of British trade between our own ports and the British colonies, and the diminution of our own. Independent of any legislation upon the subject, it is clear that the cost of building and sailing of vessels in the British provinces is less than it is in the United States; and this fact, of course, gives to British trade to those ports an additional advantage. Moreover, the principal line of mail-steamers between Great Britain and the United States is comprised of British vessels, which come by the way of Halifax, enjoying the advantage of the circuitous voyage, from which the vessels of the United States are excluded; earning a freight upon the transportation of their mails and passengers from England to the British provinces, and conveying mails and passengers to the United States, while an American steamer could only make the direct voyage between the United States and Great Britain.

We have traced the prominent facts connected with our commercial relations with the British colonial possessions of America; and we can scarcely evade the conviction that they are, as at present existing, unequal, and burdensome to our own commerce, and to the interests of the United States. In our negotiations with foreign nations, we stand upon equal and independent ground. We know no reason why we should yield to Great Britain greater advantages in commercial arrangements than that empire yields to us. If it is ascertained that we are excluded from a profitable trade with those colonies, our negotiations, it would appear, should be examined and amended. The true doctrine upon the subject would seem to be embraced in the remark of Mr. Madison, in the first Congress, in 1789, that he would meet interdict with interdict, "until we should be allowed to carry to the West India islands, in our own vessels, the produce of America, which necessity compels them to take." Nor

* See Memorial to Congress from Bangor, Maine, March 28, 1842.

should the language of President Washington, conveyed during the same year, in his instructions to Mr. Morris, be lost upon us, even in our present commercial negotiations. In those instructions, he says—"Let it be strongly impressed upon your mind that the privilege of carrying our own productions, in our own vessels, to their own islands, and bringing in return the productions of these islands to our own ports and market, is regarded here of the highest importance; and you will be careful not to countenance any idea of our dispensing with it in a treaty."

Art. IV.—OBSERVATIONS ON COTTON.

The production of cotton in the United States, in the year 1839, was short of the preceding crop by 32 per cent, which was followed by an augmented yield of 60 per cent the succeeding year. A continued liability to similar fluctuations places in uncertainty all speculations upon the future productions of the country, particularly if based upon the result of a single crop; but, by taking the average for a series of years, in connection with other known facts, the increasing capacity of the country, both to produce and consume, may be estimated, with the probability of approximate accuracy.

By a report of the secretary of the treasury to Congress, compiled from the returns of the weight and value of cotton cleared at all the custom-houses of the United States, the average price of cotton, in the year 1790, was 14¼ cents per lb.; and from the year—

1791 to 1800,	av. price was	33 cts.;	highest av.	44 cts.	in 1799,	lowest av.	23 cts.	in 1793.
1801 to 1810,	"	22 "	"	44 "	in 1801,	"	16 "	in 1810.
1801 to 1820,	"	20½ "	"	34 "	in 1818,	"	10½ "	in 1812.
1821 to 1835,	"	12¾ "	"	21 "	in 1825,	"	9¼ "	in 1831.

From this, it appears that, for thirty years, from 1790 to 1820, the price of cotton averaged 25 cents per lb.; and in the last fifteen years of the forty-five mentioned in the above table, the average price was less, by 20 cents per lb., than it was in the first ten years.

The cause of the great reduction in the value of this important staple is to be found, no doubt, in the augmentation of the quantity produced; the progressive increase of which, in this country, for the last twenty years, appears in the following table of the—

Cotton Crops of the United States.

		Average for 5 years.		*Av. inc. per annum.*	
Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.	Bales.	Pr. ct.
1824,.....	509,158	.....	.....	.....	.....
1825,.....	567,748	.....	.....	.....	.....
1826,.....	716,290	1824 to 1828,.....	691,000	.....	.....
1827,.....	954,251	1825 to 1829,.....	762,000	71,000	10.27
1828,.....	709,422	1826 to 1830,.....	844,000	82,000	10.76
1829,.....	866,112	1827 to 1831,.....	909,000	65,000	7.79
1830,.....	976,845	1828 to 1832,.....	916,000	7,000	0.77
1831,.....	1,038,847	1829 to 1833,.....	988,000	72,000	7.86
1832,.....	987,477	1830 to 1834,.....	1,056,000	68,000	6.88
1833,.....	1,070,439	1831 to 1835,.....	1,111,000	55,000	5.21
1834,.....	1,205,394	1832 to 1836,.....	1,175,000	64,000	5.76
1835,.....	1,254,328	1833 to 1837,.....	1,265,000	90,000	7.66
1836,.....	1,360,725	1834 to 1838,.....	1,409,000	144,000	11.30
1837,.....	1,422,930	1835 to 1839,.....	1,440,000	31,000	2.20

COTTON CROPS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

		Average for 5 years.		*Av. inc. per annum.*	
Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.	Bales.	Pr. ct.
1838,.....	1,801,497	1836 to 1840,.....	1,625,000	175,000	12.15
1839,.....	1,360,532	1837 to 1841,.....	1,680,000	55,000	3.28
1840,.....	2,182,880	1838 to 1842,.....	1,732,000	52,000	3.27
1841,.....	1,634,945	1839 to 1843,.....	1,848,000	116,000	6.69
1842,.....	1,684,211	.....	.....	.....	.....
1843,.....	2,378,875	.....	.....	.....	.....

15)101.86

Average increase per annum, in the above series of years,..... 6.79

So long as the production of cotton shall prove as profitable as that of any other article, we may expect its increased cultivation will continue, until all the lands peculiarly adapted to its cultivation shall be put into requisition. As, however, the cost of producing an article by agriculture, when only one article is cultivated, depends upon many contingencies, it is impossible to fix the lowest price at which it can be profitably produced; but a planter who is out of debt, with a force that makes a crop of three hundred bales of cotton, can, it is said, at the present low prices of supplies, comfortably support his family, and put his cotton in packages ready for market, including cost of bagging and rope, at ten dollars per bale of four hundred pounds, which is 2½ cents per lb.; and, if he obtain a price that will nett 5 cents per lb., after deducting freights, commission, and other charges, it will give him a nett revenue of $30,000; thereby yielding, over and above family expenses, an interest of 10 per cent per annum upon a capital of $30,000, which is a greater sum in proportion, I believe, than has been obtained for any plantation recently sold. The re-establishment of confidence will tend greatly to enhance the value of land and labor; and, as a cotton planter has to buy a large portion of all that he consumes, any considerable upward fluctuation in the price of other commodities, will greatly add to the cost of his own crop. Nevertheless, the cost of producing cotton will probably seldom exceed the price obtainable; and its cultivation is likely to be steadily extended, until the means of extension are exhausted.

The average increase in the growth of cotton in the United States, for the last twenty years, appears to have been about 7 per cent per annum. Should the same ratio of increase be continued until the year 1850, the crop of the United States will then amount to three millions five hundred thousand bales; and, should this great quantity of cotton be produced, past experience warrants the belief that it will all be wanted; for, heretofore, at moderate prices, the consumption has not only kept pace with, but run ahead of the growth, until checked by the reduction of stocks, and the consequent advance of prices. But there is a limit to the extension of cultivation, and there is no longer a capacity in the United States, without a great diversion of labor from other pursuits, to increase the growth of cotton in the ratio of 7 per cent per annum. The average crop of the United States, for five years, from—

1836 to 1840, was.....	1,625,000 bales.			
1837 to 1841, "	1,680,000 "	Average increase,.....	3.38	per cent.
1838 to 1842, "	1,732,000 "	"	3.28	"
1839 to 1843, "	1,848,000 "	"	6.69	"
Making the average increase, in these eight years,.....			4.41	"

In this period, are included three very large crops, and only one very short crop; and it will probably be fairer to take the difference between the crops of 1843 and 1840, (the two fullest and largest crops ever made,) which difference is one hundred and ninety-six thousand bales. This shows an annual increase, in the last three years, of about 3 per cent; which may be assumed as the probable increase of the growth of cotton in this country for a series of years to come, provided no extraordinary occurrences interpose, to disturb the settled and steady progress of events.

The two largest crops ever made in North Alabama and Tennessee, were, in the year 1831, about one hundred and seventy-two thousand bales; and in the year 1843, about one hundred and ninety-one thousand bales—showing an increase, in twelve years, of only nineteen thousand bales; and the largest intermediate crop was one hundred and forty-nine thousand bales. In the Atlantic states, there has been no increase in the growth of cotton for six years. The largest crop ever made there, was the growth of 1837—about six hundred and fifty-two thousand bales. In these large portions of the cotton-growing region, it is not probable, therefore, that the crops already made will, for many years to come, be much exceeded; and they may be deemed to have nearly reached their maximum. In the ten years from 1830 to 1840, the population of Alabama increased 55 per cent; and the receipts of cotton, at Mobile alone, have already reached nearly half a million of bales. During the same period, the population of Mississippi increased 220 per cent; and a large portion of her most valuable lands are already under cultivation. There is no probability, therefore, that the future increase in the production of cotton, in these two states, will bear any proportion to the increase in the ten years last past. The largest further augmentation of the growth of cotton in the United States is, therefore, in a great measure, limited to the region of country west of the Mississippi river—to Arkansas, and the western part of Louisiana; and, as population increases in the high cotton-growing latitudes, where the crop is most precarious, it is probable that there will be a gradual diversion of labor from the cultivation of cotton to other objects, as has already been experienced in Virginia and North Carolina, where the crops have been reduced from one hundred and thirteen thousand bales, in the year 1827, to twenty-one thousand bales, in the year 1843.

In North Alabama and Tennessee, the uncertainty of the cotton crop is more than one-half—say, as four in ten. The crop of 1831 was one hundred and seventy-two thousand bales, and the crop of 1839 was sixty-nine thousand bales; and the people of that section of country will, as opportunity offers, gradually direct their attention to less doubtful products.

In view of the successful manufacture of cotton in the United States, which has more than trebled in the last sixteen years, and considering the constantly augmenting capital applicable to manufacturing purposes, this branch of manufacture seems more likely to progress in an accelerated than a diminished ratio. The increase of consumption has now apparently overtaken the increase of production; and, should the manufacture of cotton in this country, hereafter, increase in a ratio corresponding with the past, our surplus for foreign markets, without a greater increase of production than has of late been realized, can never exceed the greatest export already attained.

It is worthy of remark, that the stock of cotton on hand in Great Bri-

tain, at the close of the year 1820, was four hundred and fifteen thousand bales, being a supply for forty-three weeks' consumption; and the stock of cotton in the ports of Great Britain, at the close of each year, from 1818 to 1830, was an average supply for about thirty-two weeks' consumption—exceeding the stock (as compared with the consumption) on hand, at the close of the year 1842, by a supply for about seven weeks. Nevertheless, prices were maintained, during the whole of this period of thirteen years, much above the present quotations; and, subsequent to 1830, they ruled much higher. S. T. C.

Art. V.—THE CURRENCY.

The writers on currency, or on the modification of the banking system, in the Merchants' Magazine, appear to agree in opinion with many of the members of the executive, legislative, and judicial departments of the government of the several states and of the United States, that it is proper, or to the public advantage, in some one way or another, that the quantity of currency should be increased beyond what *mere* industry could supply—very likely because it is easier to make currency, such as they think will answer, to be given in exchange for products of industry, than to make products of industry to be given in exchange for currency—or because, if the industrious be allowed to take their own way of giving and receiving an equivalent in value in making their exchanges of productions of labor, others would have to pursue the same course of industry, or be without money.

An observer of the effects of an increase of currency beyond what *mere* industry supplies to a community, disposed to satire or irony, might represent:—

That the world is divided into a spending class, who may be termed we, our and us; and a producing class, who may be termed they, theirs and them; and that the interests of each class are always in conflict with each other.

The spending class is the government in Europe, Asia and Africa, and it would be out of fashion for social relations to be organized differently in America. The object of government, as generally practised, is to wrest from producers their earnings, in order that others may be relieved from the inconvenience of producing for themselves. The producing classes in other nations are made to pay, feed and clothe large standing armies, who, in consideration, compel their supporters to pay over all their other earnings to dignitaries in politics and piety, and to the holders of the evidences of the spending classes' debts. Under the more enlightened system in the United States, these numerous hordes are kept to work, who would otherwise be idling away their time in standing armies; and the spending class accomplish, by financiering, what behind-the-age nations accomplish by force.

The producing class are governed by the spending class in these "free, independent and republican states of America," as well as elsewhere. In all the frequent changes of men and manners, occasioned by our currency system; in all the divisions and subdivisions among the parties who distinguish themselves as democrats and whigs, it may be noticed that our

financial machinery, of extracting the earnings of industry by raising and lowering values, is never disturbed. The producing classes, with being ignorant that money can rise and fall in value, attribute the constant fluctuations in the quantity of our paper in circulation to the rises and falls in the value of their produce, property, and means of living and of production; or rather, to chance, good or bad luck, or to the good or bad dispensations of Providence. So long as they continue in such delusion and superstition, it will be very easy to manage them, and apply their earnings to the use of the spending class.

The natural effect of our operations, in raising and lowering values, keeps the producing classes wide awake, or on the watch as to how their interests are to be effected, which prepares them for high political excitement. There is not much worth in a cat than its skin; and so we get the earnings of their labor, the producing classes may revel in their elections, and govern their carcasses as they please. By means of the newspapers in our interests, attending political meetings, making speeches in favor of heroes, statesmen, and industry; proposing flaming resolutions in favor of the people; with some of us siding with one, and others of us with another party, and with assuming that the residents of cities know more as to what is best for those of the country than they know themselves, it is easy to put agriculturists, who are the majority as a class, against each other, and set them at loggerheads about this man and that, or about this measure or some other. It is better for the spending class that the producing classes should vent their anger on each other for their losses than on the recipients of them. They may safely be trusted to revenge or amuse themselves in voting at the elections, so long as we make the nominations of a sufficient number of their candidates to answer our purposes. It is immaterial whether they prefer to vote a whig ticket or a democratic ticket, or which of them be elected, so long as we have the ascendancy in the legislatures and judiciaries of the several states to uphold our currency system; or, in other words, so long as we govern the government.

The people's constitution will not admit of idlers wresting from the industrious their earnings by force; donkey might kick up, if that course should be tried; but the producing classes generally appear to be content with being cheated out of their earnings by our financial machinery. It only can be accounted for on the supposition that they may think they are getting some profit by it, or getting part of the spoils. As an instance, they are willing to have their future earnings pledged, and their children's livings and estates saddled with loans for the spending classes' use, under the hope of getting part of the money indirectly through a higher price for their produce. They never dream that the only effect of others filling the channels of circulation with money is, to proportionately raise the prices of everything they have to buy, with adding little or nothing to the value of their exportable productions, as they are governed in their value at home by their value abroad. As an indemnification for their assumption of loans to others, they are left *minus* the whole amount, as there is nobody to earn anything to pay principal and interest but themselves, and *minus* still more in the high price paid for their supplies, without having had their means increased to pay with. The producing classes know, also, that their constitution prohibits others to cheat them, or they to cheat themselves in the use of "bills of credit" or currency notes. But we tell them, and they are fools enough to believe it, that the printing of the word

"dollars" on bits of paper, and giving them in exchange for their productions, at what the productions are worth in other nations, greatly adds to the wealth of the country and to the *price* of their productions: not a word is said, however, about the *price* of their supplies—nor is the quantity of labor and natural advantages in the one deducted from the other, to ascertain the surplus of advantages; or to ascertain if they are not finding the money to others with which to buy their productions. However, inasmuch as the producing classes sanction our financiering arrangements, we shall not dispute with them about it, but take it for granted that there is but one interest to be promoted in men associating together, and that is, the welfare of the spending class. The spending class could not well get along in a "free country" unless their paper be made equivalent in value to others' industry, and hence the necessity for more currency than industry supplies.

As a production of labor of an exchangeable value in other nations is a currency of itself, with which to procure money or other productions of labor, it is evident that, by the industrious exchanging their productions of labor for others' paper, and imagining it to be money, such imagination enables the spending class to exchange paper for productions of labor, and to exchange the productions of labor for their value in coin in other nations; whereby the spending class and producing class are both supplied with money. After the admission, by general consent, that the increased currency belonging to the spending class is right, they have only to make as much more for themselves as is paid out for productions of labor, to render it "a fair business transaction" in supplying both classes with money, in the exchange manner mentioned, as can be proved by rules in arithmetic, viz: If two sets of currencies proceed from one set of exports, then each set of currency is entitled to half the imports derived from such exports. Again, if one set of imports, derived from the exports, rises in value to amount to two sets of currencies, the producers of the exports get for their set of currency in value what they fail to get in quantity, by the rise of *price* of the imports, which settles the account with them, and leaves a surplus of half the quantity of imports for the use of the spending class at home or abroad. In this way everything goes along favorably, and when the producing classes have paid away our paper for high-priced imports, high duties or taxes, and have made their contributions for religious and charitable purposes, they have nothing else to do but to go to work again like good fellows, to earn, for the same purposes, more of our paper. In this round-about way of financiering with "bills of credit," or currency notes, the spending class in this republic do full as well as those in other nations, who take the more direct route by coercion. But it is no more, perhaps, than we are entitled to for our trouble in making artificial industry, or *money* institutions "to regulate the exchanges" for the producing classes and ourselves.

What may be said in favor of an increase of currency beyond what industry supplies, may be mentioned—

First. That this is a "free country of equal rights and no monopoly." The spending class allows the producing class to make money by their industry; and the producing class allows others to make money by engraved paper. Without mixing the paper of the spending class among the productions of labor of the producing class, to form what the president of the United States Bank, in 1828, termed "a mixed currency," the pro-

ducing classes would have *a monopoly* of the means of procuring from abroad coin, coffee, wines, silks, and other things, which are as useful to the idle as to the industrious. The reason given for the utility of this mixed currency was, that "it saves the expense of coin:" not that it saves any expense to the producing class, as all the expense to which their produce is liable is incurred previous to its being ready for sale, and all subsequent expense to which it is liable is deducted by the purchaser from its value; but it saves the expense of toil and trouble to the spending class of earning coin, or other things valuable, to be given in exchange for such produce.

Second. It saves labor to the spending class. There is no use of all being to work, when a part will answer; and unless the producing class should take paper for their productions of labor, the spending class would have to produce for themselves.

Third. Coin is hard to get by those who have no mental or physical commodity of an exchangeable value to be given in exchange for it; which makes it "hard money," and only suitable for those who are "behind the age," such as Cubans and Frenchmen.

Fourth. It creates a new employment for a fourth party to operate in between producers, distributers and consumers; and by keeping them busy, to counteract the effects of such interposition, makes "brisk times" for the country.

Fifth. It relieves many moneyless idlers from ennui, and "developes the resources of the country" in bringing out the talents of financiers and others, who would otherwise never be known. It employs them in changing their own and their securities' notes for currency notes; in changing currency notes for productions of labor; in changing productions of labor for property or imports; in changing imports for currency notes; and in changing currency notes back for their own notes. But with how much profit to producers who have to support another class in consequence, and the productions of whose labor is the object of all this machinery, it seems hard for producers to tell.

Sixth. Lenders supply the paper capital for a share of the profits, and borrowers make use of it in a species of privateering, or trading on the chances of rises and falls of the value of money, occasioned by the lenders being liberal or niggardly in the number of notes that they discount. Lenders, at suitable periods, by a dexterous movement in shoving out into circulation, and hauling in a plentiful supply of their paper, *swamp* the privateersmen and all other borrowers, and purchasers on credit, within their sphere, and pocket the stakes; which, by making some men very rich, is another evidence of paper "developing the resources of the country."

Seventh. It causes the imports to be increased in bulk when they are derived from loans, and more generally to be increased by substituting, on the invoices, value for quantity; which is deemed to be an extension of commerce. It enables two classes to consume imports where there would be but one. Without the use of our paper, the producing class, after procuring their own supplies, would bring back the balance of their exports in coin, and cause so much less freight for the shipping. Without paper, freights would be less, unless consumers would produce for themselves the means of getting them; and there is no dependence on all of them for that.

Eighth. It causes the exports to be of greater bulk, which is another evidence of the extension of commerce. It causes the producing classes to work harder to produce more, in order to make up in quantity what they fail to obtain in value to pay their expenses; or to make up what they lose by selling their produce at its value in a single currency in other nations, and buying supplies at their value in a double currency in their own nation.

Ninth. It preserves peace, as by our producing classes selling their productions to other nations in over-burdened quantities at low prices, and other nations selling to them at two currency prices, other nations realize the chief part of the profits or earnings of our producing classes' industry, which is all the use those nations have for us, and which leaves nine-tenths of our community in the very safe condition of having nothing to be plundered of, or means with which to plunder others, by war.

Tenth. It keeps the producing classes in their places, (traces,) according to general usage in all civilized nations. If they were allowed to supply only their own wants by their industry, they would have a large surplus, over and above a sufficient supply of consumable commodities, remaining to be converted into coin. They would then be for using it in employing teachers to educate their children; editors to supply them with newspapers; mechanics to build them good houses; cabinet-makers and upholsterers, mirror-makers and carpet-weavers, to furnish their rooms; which would be as so much money wasted, as regards the spending class. Besides, look at its pernicious effect in disturbing the distinctions in rank. Our patroness Sloth would be cast aside; the goddess Industry would preside, and dispense all favors to her own votaries. The industrious, by having the only road to honor and emolument, might rise to be the superior class, and the idle descend to be the inferior class. The producing class would soon be able to employ more of their time to the improvement of their minds, and more of their labor to the improvement of their premises, to the neglect of producing for export. Others might fill the vacancy of producing for export, and when they could afford to cease from labor, they would give place to others, and so in perpetuity. But this would only be changing one set of producers for another, without benefit to the spending class. The whole business of acquisition would be confined to themselves. Necessitous gentlemen of leisure would be thrown out of employment of getting their livings by their wits, and many of superior financial merits would be excluded from participating in the benefits of commerce and of Christian association, common to Christian communities.

Notwithstanding all the plausible arguments that have been used by increase of currency writers, newspaper editors, speech makers, and constitution deciders, yet there are numerous obstinate persons who do not believe that an increase of currency is beneficial to the public. This discordance of opinion may be accounted for from the fact that they differ as to who is the public. Some claim that appellation for the spending class, and others for the producing class. Many, who are deemed to be very sensible men, argue in favor of what they imagine would be conducive to their own interests, or favorite views, and appear not to notice the consequences of them to the community. For instance, the whole force of the arguments of many, who advocate unrestricted usury, may be summed up in this: that money holders might make 15 or 20 per cent

by lending, and those without money might make by "regular business transactions" 15 or 20 per cent by borrowing; and that they have as much right to hire out money as to hire out a house or a horse, according to the current rate, and should not be restricted. Such abstract reasoners never appear to think that others have rights, nor that any person has a right to deprive others of their rights. They are willing to admit that their and others' property ought to be protected by common consent, and by law. They cannot but know that a community could not exist should the individuals of it cease production, and all turn to the business, so highly commended, of making per cents by lending and borrowing. The question for them to answer is, out of whom are these per cents to be made? If they could be made out of the wind or moonshine, to the detriment of no person, then such per cent making would be adding to the general wealth. Money is nothing more nor less than a product of industry, of an exchangeable value; and there is no such thing as adding to the general wealth by making per cents, except with additional products of labor or industry. If these per cents are to be made out of others' industry, by forestalling producers in the purchase of their supplies, or in the sale of their productions, or in reducing the value of producers' labor or money, with others filling the channels of circulation to the exclusion of theirs, except at a ruinous disadvantage, then such per cent making is an enormous public injury, inasmuch as it tends to discourage and destroy production.

In the hire of houses, arable land, ships, mills, factories, shops, machines, implements, or other things useful in production, the community may be benefited by an increase of production. They are not exchangeable values for foreign consumable commodities, but they are in due time returned to the owner, and kept in the country as so much accumulated wealth. If money be lent out, it cannot be used without being exchanged for something else; nor be used without lowering the value of itself, and the value of labor and all other money in the community, and raising the value of imported consumable commodities, or other thing in which said borrowed money may be invested. The general loss to the community may amount to many times the amount of such lent money; so that the community better support the borrowers in charity, rather than they should borrow industry, wherewith to destroy industry in others. The effect of usury is not only to destroy production in lenders and borrowers, but also in the community generally. It augments the quantity of money in circulation; and, as a consequence, reduces the value of the quantity needed as a medium for exchanges of productions of labor, which causes the surplus earnings of the country, saved in coin, to pass out of it at a low value, in exchange for foreign consumable commodities, at a high value. It causes the annual productions of exports to be insufficient to pay for the annual consumption of imports, which prevents an acquisition of surpluses, and a return of coin with which borrowers may repay lenders. The producing classes fall in debt in their business; and, in time, cease production. From the small beginning of a few usurers, frauds, vices, and corruptions, are engendered, and spread like a pestilence, in time, from one to another, till the whole community becomes infected; when, in poverty, want, and degradation, usurers and their prey, through their descendants, all go to *pot*, or to some worse place, together—matters which increase-of-currency and unlimited-usury advocates never appear to think of.

They who object to an increase of currency otherwise than by an increase of industry, make their money by industry; and they say that increase-of-currency philosophers, charter granters, and constitutional "bills-of-credit" deciders attempt to show that they can make more of a thing than there is substance to make it of; or can supply the public with more of the productions of others' labor, in exchange for its own; or with more money for the sales of its productions abroad, than the sales themselves amount to. But, in all the display of these currency luminaries in making artificial industry, they come to the *sage* conclusion that it cannot be done except by inducing the producing classes to receive bits of paper in lieu of an equivalent in value for their productions; and that this is the great discovery, which we so often hear bragged of, that places us a hundred years ahead of "behind-the-age nations," whose thick heads, it is supposed, prevents them from making a like discovery.

They who make their money by industry, cannot understand how the making, on paper, three representations of the productive labor contained in a silver dollar, can add to the general wealth, for which incorporated paper-currency makers are quartered on the public, more than the making of three representations on paper of the necessary diet for the community, for one month, can make the representations answer the purpose of the reality for three months.

Productions of labor, of an unchangeable value, will sell or exchange for their value in coin, or other productions of labor of an equal value, in any country in which they may be sold. Other nations find their own money, or means with which to make their own purchases, of another nation; and do not require, as a condition of making such purchase, such other nation to supply them with both the productions of its labor, and the money to buy them with. Productions of industry produce their own medium of exchanging them for other productions of industry—then why the necessity of artificial currency makers in a community? Why the absurdity of an industrious community establishing an unproductive class of currency makers and borrowers, and both to be supported out of the labors of the industrious?

Money, labor, currency, and value, are all of the same meaning. The industrious, or producing class of one nation, and of several nations, contribute their labor, which is money and value, to produce and prepare each other's productions, to be exchanged for the productions of each other. Exports and imports consist of the joint productions of several, in agriculture, mining, mechanics, manufacturing, navigation, and other useful employments. These joint producers can, with much advantage, transact their exporting and importing business through the agency of others; who, instead of producing, may employ their services and means in distributing. It is economy to employ such agency, as one can make exchanges for a thousand; and a very small compensation from each would remunerate a distribution merchant as much as if he and his means were engaged in producing. Producers might receive, in lieu of an equivalent in value for their productions, vouchers, notes, tokens, or certificates, till the return of imports of coin, and of consumable commodities, to the amount of them. In the mean time, such evidences of the value of the exports might be transferred to the various laborers, mechanics, manufacturers, navigators, and others, who contributed their labor to such exports, as their vouchers by which to receive their equitable proportion

of imports; or, in other words, these evidences might be used as a "cheap currency." This arrangement, however plausible it may appear, might prove very disastrous, should these evidences be increased in quantity by the makers of them, or by others.

In the matter of exchanging the productions natural to one latitude and longitude for those of other latitudes and longitudes, by which the industrious of each latitude and longitude may have the productions of every latitude and longitude, the people of one latitude, by using no other material for a currency than that which requires as much labor to produce it as is required to produce that for which it may be given in exchange, may become immensely enriched. The people of one or more of other latitudes, by using vouchers, tokens, or other cheap currency, which is easier to be made than that for which it may be exchanged, even with more industry, more products of labor, more natural advantages, more frugality, may become exhausted, impoverished, and degraded, and eventually annihilated (except as serfs) as a community of nations.

The course of nature, in the exchanges of productions of industry, is constantly obstructed and perverted by the artifice or power of those who are the consumers, and not producers, of the earnings of industry. Various measures are vainly resorted to, by which to counteract the effects of such perversion and obstruction, which generally makes the matter worse for the community. Currency derived from productions of industry is one, and currency derived from discounts or loans is another; and two sets of currencies can no more be put into one set of productions of labor, than two quarts of water can be put in a one-quart bottle. The laws of nature render it impossible; and it is out of the power of legislative lawyers, or constitutional "bills-of-credit" deciders, to counteract nature, or to circumvent the Creator. To adapt them to each other, industry must either be increased double in quantity, or existing industry must be diminished one-half in value. The bottle must be increased double in capacity, or from a bottle of water half the contents must be ejected, to give place to half the unenclosed intruder, in order to proportion the waste between them. The industrious or producing classes in the United States have always been subjected to this adjustment between their own and some other person's currency.

Producers from the soil, forests, mines, fisheries, mechanics, manufacturing, and navigation, and the various laborers connected with them in production, may deliver over their exportable productions of labor to their merchants, and receive vouchers, notes, tokens, or certificates, for such productions of labor, according to their value in other nations. Such value may be in proportion to producing flour at four dollars and a half per barrel; and such exportable productions, and the tokens received in exchange for them, may amount to sixty millions of dollars. On the arrival of the imports derived from such exports, it is found, however, that the number of tokens or vouchers in circulation amount to ninety millions of dollars. The quantity of the one must be adapted to the other. In proportion to the quantity of tokens or vouchers in circulation, and the quantity of imports received, a distribution must be made; or, rather, they proportion themselves to each other. In the adjustment, or in quantity and value proportioning themselves to each other, according to natural laws, which cannot be obviated, producers, and those to whom they transferred the tokens or vouchers as a currency, with much credulity attribu-

ting it to more "prosperous times," a "revival of trade," "*money* more plenty," or "rise of *prices*," receive only two-thirds of the quantity of imports that they are entitled to; and the holders of the other third of the tokens or vouchers in circulation, take the other third of the imports. Now arises the question, whence came this extraneous supply of thirty millions of tokens or vouchers in circulation? Who emitted these "bills of credit," or false tokens? Who were the forgers or counterfeiters of distributers' certificates or vouchers to producers? Who were the circulaters of this fraudulent currency? Who are the participants or recipients of this gross robbery of the producing classes? The answer is, that members of the legislature, who act in direct violation of the constitution, (which prohibits "bills of credit,") and under and within the prescribed limits of which they swear to act, have granted to themselves and others, and to their foreign and other assigns, permission, by acts of incorporation, to loan out at usury counterfeit distributers' tokens to producers; and that among the borrowers of them are prodigals, speculators, forestallers, and office-seekers. There is no way by which these false tokens can be used as a currency without having the effect of swindling producers, and those to whom they transfer the genuine tokens, out of part of their earnings. The result of the thirty millions of increase of currency is, that producers, or other holders of the legitimate vouchers or tokens, who receive them at a rate of labor-value of four dollars and a half for flour, only realize them at the rate of three dollars per barrel for flour, and sustain a loss of one-third, or twenty millions of dollars. The borrowers of false tokens, having given their endorsed notes to legalized usurers for thirty millions of dollars, only realize twenty millions' value of imports, and sustain a loss of ten millions of dollars; and foreign manufacturing capitalists, and other owners or producers of the imports, realize one-half, or thirty millions of dollars, more, for the quantity of imports mentioned, than they were worth; or more than they possibly otherwise could have realized, in the absence of this industry-defrauding and debt-incurring currency.

In this way, our commerce frequently amounts to the proportions of sixty millions of exports, and ninety millions of imports; which the interested and ignorant attribute "to the catching of seals by our south sea traders, selling their skins abroad, and bringing back goods," or "to the earnings of freight," or "to the profits of trade." In this way, the producing classes of the United States are made to pay tribute twenty or thirty millions annually, to keep up foreign armies and navies, and a continuance of aggression. Is it any wonder, then, that there is no surplus earnings in coin among the producing classes of our country, while there are six hundred millions among those in France, who use no other than a specie currency? Is it any wonder that we have to go in debt to raise twenty millions of revenue, while France, with only double our population, with not half of our resources, but with a value-preserved currency, raises two hundred and sixty millions of dollars revenue? Is it any wonder that the debts incurred by false token-borrowers should become immense in amount? Is it any wonder that there has been disastrous reactions of what is repugnant to nature, and that immense pecuniary losses should periodically mark our course? Is it any wonder that, with the establishment of legalized fraudulent-currency institutions in a community, both representatives and represented should become corrupt; and that contempt for rulers, who are incapable of bringing about equity and

stability in the business affairs of the country, should extensively prevail? The natural common-sense course for producers and distributers to take, is to unite in sending those men only to the legislature who will adhere to their oaths in sustaining the constitution, as well in regard to the "emission of bills of credit," as to any other part of it. The people should abolish the "banking system," and try the effect of keeping in the country twenty to thirty millions annually of actual produce, which they have heretofore been defrauded of by such "system." They should ascertain, by actual trial of it for a sufficient time, whether that sum annually, being diffused among all useful classes, will not be more serviceable to the community than the jack-o'-lantern chase in endeavoring to grasp the phantom of wealth in false tokens, or in the shadows or resemblances of their own labors, while foreign nations acquire the reality.

There is no difference in their destructive effects on the producing classes, or in bringing about ruin to a community, whether the circulating currency be increased, and be made redundant by the acquisitions of plunder; by the lending of money at interest; by the division of surplus revenue; by the distribution of the sales of public lands; by the issue of treasury-notes, to administer the government on credit; by discounting, or bill-of-exchange buying; by two, three, or a dozen representatives of one metallic constituent; by a lavish expenditure by government; by foreign or domestic loans for public purposes; or for any other purpose, or in any other way—because such redundancy adds nothing to the value of exports, and raises the value of imports. Producers acquire their money, or means of buying imports, by their industry, and no other money can be used in their community without coming in conflict with theirs, and lessening the value of both. Producers, by such excess of currency, are unavoidably compelled to buy their supplies, and pay the expenses of production at a high rate, while they always have to sell their exportable productions at a fair rate, or according to the demand and supply in other nations. The difference between selling at one rate, or according to the quantity of circulating currency, wages of labor, and value of commodities abroad; and buying at another rate, or according to a multiplied currency at home, has made, between the values of exports and imports, ten, twenty, thirty, forty, fifty and more millions of dollars a year; or six or seven hundred millions of dollars loss to the producing classes within the past thirty years, for the benefit of foreign nations; besides the support of a host, and aggrandizement of a few, domestic lenders and borrowers. The people of the United States incurred all the disasters of a seven years' war in defence of the principle of not paying tribute, as colonists, to foreign dominion by compulsion; and then tamely submitted to pay the tribute itself, to the amount of many millions annually, through the agency of foreign and domestic "bills-of-credit" usurers.

The borrowing of money, or the issuing of treasury-notes for the support of government, is wrong, on the principle of public currency, as it is better for producers, who directly and indirectly have to bear the whole burthen, that their annual productions should be used, rather than representations of them, with which to pay their public agents, as the two quantities in circulation reduces the value of both; and with adding nothing to what producers sell to, the two circulations raise the value of what both producers and agents buy from, foreign nations. If, by bad measures of Congress or state legislatures, the means of producers have

become insufficient to pay a superfluous number of representatives, and the superfluous number of offices, salaries, and expenditures of their creating, then the common-sense remedy is, to abolish the superfluities, and not pledge the future earnings of producers for present means to continue superfluous expenditures. What prospect is there so propitious in the future that it should be prematurely exhausted? It may have enough to do in sustaining itself, without being chargeable with both the then and the present expenditure. If we cannot get along now, after so many past years of superabundance of *money*, such as it was, that our legislatures and Congress employed men, or *charters*, as they call it, to make for us with which to pay single expenses, we will not be able, with double the number of such *chartered* artificial-industry makers, to pay double expenses in the future. Members of Congress and legislatures are nothing more than hirelings of their employers, and so long as hirelings be privileged to issue stocks and treasury-notes, to be paid by their employers, and with which liberally to pay themselves, and the services of relatives and electioneering agents, the efforts of producers to suppress legalized plunder of their earnings will be powerless. Put this power of borrowing, on account of their employers, out of their control, hirelings will then have to put up with the means their employers have to pay with; and as the dividend would be too small for so great a number, they would likely endeavor to make it larger by lessening their number, while their employers' estates would be saved from enthralments. The constitution allows money to be borrowed with which to repel invasion, to prevent famine, or under any other similar circumstances of danger of destruction or annihilation of the community; but not under pretences of public utility, when the real object may be to pay for imports, or otherwise relieve paper-currency makers from the necessity of redeeming their debts to the community which they are receiving interest on from individual borrowers of them; or to promote, or prevent disasters to, private speculation on the mass of the community, or to reduce the value of producers' money or earnings, that others may get them in exchange for something of less value; or to pay unnecessary sums to an unnecessary number of office-holders, and other recipients of the earnings of the industrious.

Efficient and practical merchants can have a knowledge of the sources of production and consumption, or of the abundance or deficiency of productions of industry of one country to be exchanged for those of other countries; and, in the natural order of affairs, according to the quantity of each, is the relative value between them. But, with an artificial power acting in secret, by which to change the value of the medium of making exchanges of productions of industry, all estimates founded on natural causes and effects avail nothing, as the most skilful merchant cannot tell what relative value one thing will rule with another, when the quantity of medium or currency is liable to be changed. Hence, the affairs of commerce are made games of chance to all except those who expand and contract the currency. There is no difference, in its ruinous effects to both producers and distributers, whether men be employed or *chartered* to change the measure of quantity at their will, so as to make a thousand bushels of wheat measure five hundred bushels when these men buy, and fifteen hundred bushels when they sell; with keeping the currency at a permanent value by a permanent number of dollars, than to employ or charter them to change the quantity of currency at their will, so as that

the relative quantity of currency to the relative quantity of wheat will make the latter worth fifty cents per bushel when these men buy, and by augmenting the quantity of currency proportionately so as to make the same wheat worth one dollar and fifty cents when they sell; and in the meantime the measure of quantity be kept at a permanent number of cubic inches. Neither merchants nor producers can evade the destructive effects to their business, of others' reducing the value of the currency with paper fictions at home, by they making their purchases of supplies abroad, even if there were no duties on them; because foreign producers, manufacturers, and others, also watch for the rises and falls of the value of their productions in other nations, and only sell them at what they may be worth in the highest market of other nations, the same as we value our exports at home according to their value in other nations. Foreign manufacturing, banking and trading capitalists, who are stockholders in many of the paper-currency institutions in our sea-ports, through the agency of their proxy directors, and through their loans and paper emissions, can lower the value of our money and labor, and raise the value of hundreds of millions of dollars value of their productions and manufactures to be sold to us and all other nations, without adding a cent of value to our productions in their nation. This same false token, or false currency-making, is the most stupendous engine for fraud that was ever invented; and the most stupid people that ever existed ought never to have suffered it a moment.

It is only in a false condition of the affairs of a community, effected by fraud or power, that agriculture, commerce and manufactures should be inimical to each other; or that the quantity of labor applied to manufacture clothing, or to procure food, should exceed the quantity of labor received in exchange for them; or that the cost of production should exceed the value of the produce. Some, who use more of manufacturers labor than they give of their labor in return, supply to others more than they receive of their labor in return. Now, if a common medium of an equivalent in value to the labor of each be used, the manufacturer can procure of the latter the quantity of labor that he supplied to the former. But if, in the interim of receiving and using such medium, others make counterfeit representations of it, which claim a proportion of the labor for which the manufacturer holds the genuine medium, by which he only receives a half or three-fourths of the quantity of labor that he supplied to others of his labor, he may well cry out for "protection" against such foul injustice and gross oppression from counterfeit medium-makers. With "protection" against false medium-makers and the practice of usury, or, in other words, with preserving the currency at its labor value of producing it, manufacturing, through numerous natural and incidental advantages, could be carried on to better advantage in the United States than in any other nation. With a suppression of redundant currency, both false and fair, the United States would soon export as large an amount of manufactures as agricultural productions, with the one requiring no more duties on imports than the other. As the people of the world would wear as many clothes as they do, whether the spinning-jennies or other machinery whirl round at one place or at another, it is immaterial to the producers of the materials of manufacture, whether each nation manufactures for its own use, or procures its supplies from others. Foreign rivals, in order to destroy manufacturing in other nations, aid in reducing the values of their

currencies by loans and false currency; a more effectual destroyer than any other, except arbitrary power of entire suppression.

Upon the application to agriculturists by manufacturing capitalists for gratuitous contributions of food, with hiring them to eat it, by paying them higher extra value for their manufactures than the food they buy of distant states amounts to, the latter should be told, if they are not already aware of it, that it is the reduction of the value of money that brings foreign goods here to compete with them, and to be exchanged for low-priced money; that by multiplying the quantity of legitimate currency by lending out at interest, either it, or paper representations of it, reduces the value of money; that their own legislatures license or charter paper fiction lenders; that they and others are stockholders in these false currency institutions; that their "operatives" deposit their earnings in *lending-saving* institutions, by which they get dividends on past earnings about five per cent, and by which they reduce their present and future earnings about fifteen to fifty per cent; that the one business of lending and reducing the value of their and others' money, destroys their other business of acquiring value-unimpaired money; and that their application for "protection," or to prohibit imports, or to make the interests of three millions of agriculturists subservient to a few hundred manufacturing capitalists, or rather to false currency-lenders, when stripped of its plausible exterior of supporting home industry, simply amounts to craving assistance or protection, to keep up their usurious paper-lending institutions: assistance to promote that which destroys the business of all the producing classes, professional men, salary receivers and others, from whom aid is sought: assistance to promote that which keeps thousands of men in incessant toil, and struggling a lifetime, with much frugality, to make the productions of their labor to amount to expenses, artificially increased on them by a false currency.

In a republic, in which communities govern themselves, in which every man has a right to work, and to apply the productions of his own labors to his own purposes, free from restraint, molestation, diminution, or rapacity of other men, the government is the most simple and the most easily to be administered. Officials, either in a legislative, executive, or judicial capacity, can aid industry in no other way than to off coat, go to work and increase the quantity of useful productions. With materials for food, clothing and shelter being secured to a community, all else useful will in due time follow; as the same industry which produces the former will apply itself to the latter so soon as time and labor can be spared from the former for the purpose. If experience has shown that any existing law, custom, decision, or "precedent" be unjust to producers, or be repugnant to fostering the production of *materials* for food, clothing, residence and defence, then the common-sense remedy of a wrong is to abolish it, and let producers make their own "precedents" of letting each other alone in their several employments. All that the government has to do with the people in a republic is, to *prevent* idlers, litigious leeches, public loan negotiators, false currency-makers, usurers, thieves and other *varmints*, from disturbing or preying upon industry.

In order to prevent labor, money, or currency, which is the same thing, from being artificially reduced in value, the lending of representations of it must be suppressed; and the lending of the reality must be discouraged,

by reducing the rate of interest to so small an amount as to make it no object of profit to lend it.

In order to counteract the effects of state legislatures violating the constitution, in authorising men, and, in some cases, their own members and co-partners, to "emit bills of credit," counterfeit tokens, or a false currency, to get interest on, or to speculate upon, or for any other purpose, the general government may in vain endeavor to make up in quantity of compensation to the industrious what they lose by a deficiency of value of their labors in consequence of the "bills of credit" or currency notes. Distributing the proceeds of public lands with one hand, and levying duties to make up the same amount for revenue with the other, will make the matter worse. The effect of establishing a fiscal agent, exchequer, or any other note-discounting, or bill-of-exchange buying, or currency-multiplying machinery; of pledging the property and earnings of the industrious for loans of money, to be put in the machinery; of causing the producing classes to redeem the notes such machinery may issue, by giving their exportable productions to *discountees* in exchange for them; of making the producing classes pay high duties on imports, in order to preserve the *specie-basis*, and to withdraw the notes from their hands, and prevent a necessity for their redemption in a more valuable exportable commodity; of prohibiting imports, or issue public stocks under some pretence to pay for them, in order to prevent the producing classes using the notes they receive for their productions from being used to procure their supplies, except by giving two notes for supplies according to their rate of value at home, when they only receive one for their productions, according to their value abroad; of making twice the amount of government expenditure as is necessary in order to consume the high duties, will only be adding fuel, with a view to extinguish the flame; and all such delusions on one side, and rapacity on the other, will fail to indemnify producers and distributers for the losses they sustain from others making and using counterfeit representations of products of industry.

A great self-acting measure against numerous ills would be for agriculturists and others, through their representatives, to establish national depositories at convenient places, in order that money of individuals, societies, and government, could be safely deposited without recourse to the vaults of currency depreciators; and in order that individuals might be relieved from the necessity of lending money out, or buying something not wanted, or making their own vaults, for fear of loss by fire or robbery.

In order to make such depositories more useful to the public; in supplying a convenient national currency; in facilitating the exchanges of productions of industry in our immense and wide-spread internal trade; and in "the collection, safe-keeping, and disbursement of the public revenue;" the depositories could give drafts on each other, payable in redrafts engraved for circulation, and in sums of five, ten, twenty, fifty, and one hundred dollars. For instance, if part of the money received from the customs in New York be wanted at the north-western frontier, the depository in New York would draw on the depository at St. Louis, from which the Indian or other agent would receive the small circulating drafts mentioned drawn on the money deposited for their redemption in the depository in New York. After passing through numerous hands in making

payments and purchases, a part of these small drafts would be collected in the hands of traders who might wish to make remittances to, or purchases at, New Orleans. The depository at St. Louis could receive them and give a draft on the depository at New Orleans for the like number or amount of circulating drafts, payable at the same depository as those were which had been withdrawn from circulation at St. Louis. After these substitute drafts be collected in the hands of those needing to transmit funds to New York, the depository in New Orleans would receive them, and give a draft on the depository in New York for a like number or amount of small drafts as those superseded; and as the small drafts in this case would be payable in New York, the money could be withdrawn and the transaction be closed.

The same transaction is equally applicable to all the exchanges of the productions of industry of the country. Instead of an exporter, importer, or manufacturer, in any of the northern states, directing his agent to draw on him for money with which to purchase agricultural productions in any of the southern or western states, he may deposit his money in the nearest depository to him, and procure a draft on the depository nearest to his agent, who would procure the circulating drafts mentioned, with which to make his purchases. Such circulating drafts would pass from factors to producers; from them to merchants, manufacturers, artisans, drovers; and from them to others; by which a truly sound national currency would be spread over the country.

From the large amount of internal trade, proceeding from the variety of productions and climates, the amount of exchanges that would be effected through these depositories, might be sufficient, with a premium on each large draft of a sum that would be required to pay the expense of transmission of coin, to defray the expenses of the depositories. If the premiums should amount to more, the rates should be reduced; and if less, then the deficiency should be made up from the sales of lands, or other revenue.

The circulating drafts, immaterial at what depository payable, could not be otherwise than current in all parts of the United States, as both the deposits would be made in the care of, and the evidences of them be issued by, the United States.

With the appointment of men noted for their probity, capacity to properly attend to their own business, free from financiering and speculating talents, and untainted with stockholding in false currency-making institutions, to manage the depositories, and they properly organized under a supervisory depository department of the government, with all the checks and restraints of the other departments, there could be no doubt of the safety to depositors. A few years ago, the treasury department had in its charge forty millions of surplus revenue, and thirty odd millions for current expenses, without delinquency. A depository department could be entrusted with a like sum, or more, with like success. There is much less danger of loss in depositing money in the care of the whole people of the United States, than with the general run of counterfeit token-lenders. The executive, legislative, treasury, or other departments of the government, need have no more access to the vaults of the depository department than individuals have; and that would be in making deposits, and withdrawing them, through the agency of superintendents. The supervisory department could require weekly accounts from all the depositories, and send

agents frequently, to compare representations with realities. The states could have the same power.

These depositories might sell any amount of exchange that might be applied for, but never buy any. They might collect notes, but never discount any. They might receive and deliver sealed packages without charge, but keep no running accounts with individuals. They could, without charge, exchange circulating drafts for coin, with much advantage to the community. They would never have a claim on them in circulation, without a previous deposit of coin to meet it. Every holder of a five dollar draft, and upwards, would have his money safely deposited. The producing classes would be relieved from the necessity of receiving a spurious currency of paper, and also from the necessity of weighing and assaying foreign and other coins, in order to receive them at their proper value, in exchange for property, or productions of industry. J. J. C.

ART. VI.—COMMERCE AND COMMERCIAL CHARACTER.*

THE Address delivered before the Mercantile Library Association, of the city of Boston, by Philip Hone, who has been long and extensively known as a successful and public spirited merchant of the city of New York, was peculiarly adapted to the occasion upon which it was pronounced. Mr. Hone has been active in furthering the interests of a similar institution in the city of his residence, and was one of its principal founders. His efforts have ever been conspicuous in advancing the objects of such associations elsewhere, and from no source, perhaps, could an address of such a character have more appropriately proceeded. It is natural and proper for one who has been so active and prominent a member of the mercantile body to elevate the standard of the mercantile character, which is one of the principal objects of this effort; and he has fortified his positions by marked examples of uprightness, beneficence, and public spirit, to be found in the prominent merchants of former times, and of our own age and country.

Without detracting from the patriotism of bodies of men in other occupations, who have exhibited equally noble traits, proportioned to their means, where sacrifices were to be made, the mercantile portion of the community have not been behind those men, in their liberality, probity, and patriotism. Our own country has furnished a Hancock and a Morris, as well as a Washington, an Adams, a Putnam, and a Franklin; and in those periods wherein large expenses were to be incurred, and extraordinary dangers to be encountered, the merchants have seldom been found unwilling to bestow their means as well as their personal services in the cause of justice and patriotism, or to grant liberal benefactions to institutions of charity, learning, and religion. Upon the subject of commerce and kindred topics, Mr. Hone uses the following language:—

"What subject more appropriate than commerce, can be offered by a citizen of New York, to the consideration of a Boston audience?

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* An Address delivered before the Mercantile Library Association, at the Odeon, in Boston, October 3, 1843. By PHILIP HONE, Honorary Member of the Association, and, up to the present moment, a warm friend and patron.

Both cities have risen, and prospered, and grown great, upon the foundations which were laid by commerce. Their charitable, scientific, and literary institutions have been, in most instances, founded and endowed by the munificence of merchants. The fine arts have found in them the most liberal patronage, and education acknowledges the beneficial influence of their labors and benefactions.

"The natural effect of commercial enterprise is to improve the understanding, by opening new fountains of knowledge, and to refine the social condition of man, by the mutual exchange of commodities of the mind, for the men that 'go down to the sea in ships' never fail to bring home with their return cargoes, and contribute to the common stock, treasures of information otherwise unattainable, and often more valuable than the gold of Ophir, or the spices of Arabia.

"When, at the close of the war of the revolution, the commerce of the United States sprang into existence, and she was free to make her path on the ocean wave; when the stripes and stars of independent America had fought themselves up to the mast-head, and the young eagle of the West had begun to plume her pinions for an unwonted flight, Boston and New York became competitors and rivals in the honorable career; competitors in enterprise, and rivals without hostility; then it was that the 'Experiment,' an Albany sloop of eighty or ninety tons burthen, made a safe and successful voyage to Canton and back, astonishing, by the temerity of the undertaking, the unbelieving natives, who, in the subsequent voyages in vessels of a much larger class, of my old friend, Captain Deane, the respectable commander, always saluted him with the title of 'the one-mast captain.' About the same time, 'The Empress of China' was fitted out for a similar voyage, from Boston; and however disposed we may have been at times to dispute the fact, it is better to acknowledge with a good grace, that Yankee enterprise got a little ahead of the worthy descendants of the Dutch burgomasters on that occasion, as it has on some of more recent occurrence; but the same laudable emulation has continued to characterize the two cities, and although from natural causes, more operative in the state of New York, her capital city has increased in size and population in a greater degree than that of Massachusetts, the latter may challenge for her merchants a comparison for patriotism, enterprise, and liberality, with the most distinguished of their New York brethren. Equally are they indebted to commerce for a large share of the prosperity which they have hitherto enjoyed, with equal magnanimity and unwavering integrity have their merchants sustained themselves under the embarrassments mainly occasioned by a wayward and fluctuating system of national legislation; and whenever the clouds which have overspread the land shall be dissipated, and the bright star of the republic again be in the ascendant, they will be the first to improve the happy omen, and prove themselves, as they ever have, the harbingers of better times. In expatiating upon the beneficial influence of mercantile character upon the other classes of society; the patriotic services, and the willing sacrifices and liberal benefactions which men engaged in trade and commerce have contributed since the days of the revolution to the present time, for the benefit of their fellow-citizens, I refrain from presenting a list of the names of those of that honored profession to whom New York is deeply indebted for so large a share of all she boasts; to whose munificence and public spirit she owes, in a great measure, the

distinction which she somewhat arrogantly assumes, of being styled the 'empire city.' Possessing an extensive influence in the community, and, until lately, the means of rendering that influence available, their benefactions have ever been the city's exchequer for all good works; and I should fail in my duty to the institution which I, in some wise, represent on this occasion, were I not to acknowledge the obligation which they have conferred upon it, in giving it a 'local habitation,' and assisting it to rise to its present elevation.

"But I am not forbidden, by similar motives of delicacy, from doing homage to the merchants of Massachusetts, many of whose names are inscribed on the records of the revolution, and all of whom have contributed by acts of patriotism, devotion to the public good, and adherence to sound principles, to ennoble the profession to which they belonged. And what name so fit to head the catalogue as that of JOHN HANCOCK? Methinks I see the dignified form of this unflinching patriot, surrounded by his illustrious compeers; an assemblage of heroes, firm and uncompromising as the barons of Runnimede, affixing his name first on the magna charta of the new world; and pledging with them 'life, fortune, and sacred honor,' to the glorious cause of liberty and independence. And there is that noble autograph, in characters unlike the mincing chirography of the supple courtier, or the tremulous hand of the suppliant for favor or forgiveness; but bold, and strong as the traces of lightning on the riven rock; seeming to say proudly to all the world, here stands my name, the delegated representative of New England, and here *she* stands, armed in the panoply of truth and justice, with the shield of faith, and the breast-plate of righteousness; her lance formed of the tough oak from the forests of the rock of Plymouth, couched in rest to do battle against her oppressors, and ready to 'do or die' in the sacred cause. If that cause falls, I and my fortunes fall with it; if it succeeds, as with the blessing of God, and the union and patriotism of my countrymen, it cannot fail to do, succeeding ages will reverence the name of John Hancock, the merchant of Boston.

"In unfolding this interesting scroll of the time-honored names of departed worthies who have graced the mercantile character, the eye rests with satisfaction upon those of George Cabot, Thomas Cushing, Tristram Dalton, Benjamin Goodhue, Samuel A. Otis, (father of your distinguished citizen, Harrison Gray Otis, the ornament of private society now, as he formerly was of the bar and the forum,) Stephen Higginson, Jonathan Jackson, and James Lloyd, all of whom held conspicuous stations in the councils of the nation. You will recognize with pride those of John Coffin Jones, Richard Derby, Jun., Samuel Dexter, Oliver Wendell, Thomas Davis, and William Phillips, (father and son of that name,) prominent actors in their country's struggle for liberty and independence, and of Thomas Melville, one of the experimental philosophers of the day, who taught the ladies of Boston to make tea with cold water; of the brothers Amory, Samuel Eliott, John McLean, Thomas Russell, Francis C. Lowell, of whom thousands of Jennies and Billies 'continually do cry,' and of his son, John Lowell, equally eminent as a merchant during the short career he was permitted to run; of William Gray of Salem, and Israel Thorndike of Beverly; and of that other house, the first adventurers to the south-west coast of America, one of whom, after manifold acts of munificence, affixed the seal to his patent as friend and patron of literature

and the arts, by his princely gift to your Athenæum, and the other who happily survives, whose character is embalmed in the glowing eulogium of his friend, the inspired orator of Bunker-hill, to the justness of which I trust I may be allowed to add my testimony, as the experience of an acquaintance of some years standing, and to unite in the fervent prayer, made on the occasion alluded to, that 'he may long remain, with unimpaired faculties, in the wide field of his usefulness.'

"All these, with the exception of the gentleman last named, are of that honored by-gone generation, the pleasant odor of whose good names marks the path of their sojourning, but we may not confine ourselves to these, but pay a passing tribute to living worth; to Peter C. Brooks and Robert G. Shaw, to the family of Lawrence, and that of Appleton, the Bryants and the Sturgises, to the Peabodies, the Silsbees, and the Phillipses of Salem, and others, whose well-earned thrift, collected in the reservoirs of care and carefulness,

> "'droppeth as the gentle rain of heaven
> Upon the place beneath.'

"In thus presenting to your view the claims upon your gratitude of the mercantile character, and placing before you, as an example for your imitation, such of your fellow-citizens as have chosen trade and commerce as the avenues to wealth and distinction, it is not my intention to derogate from the merits of other classes of your enlightened and intelligent community. In no state of our Union have the learned professions sent more worthy laborers into the field of patriotism and public spirit, and the agricultural and mechanical classes have not failed to furnish their full quota.

"The only view which I intend to take at this time, of commerce, a subject so multifarious in its aspects, and so prolific in its details, is its connection with the free institutions of government, the only soil in which it is raised and nurtured to perfection, and the reciprocity of interests which should bind them to each other. Commerce has never thriven under the retroaction of an arbitrary government, and even the bright gleam of commercial sunshine which flashed for a moment at the close of the fifteenth century, over Spain and Portugal, when under the auspices of the former, Columbus, the daring navigator, made in the great waters a path to the star which he descried, in the west, and the discovery of a new passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, placed the trident of commerce within the grasp of the latter, these important events in the commercial history of the world, serve only to confirm the theory which I have advanced. In vain the seed was planted and sprung up, the icy hand of despotism checked its growth, and the fierce rays of superstition scorched its branches; the genial dews of popular rights were not permitted to visit its roots, and it was denied the healthful culture of equal laws; and thus were the beneficent objects of divine goodness frustrated by the selfish inventions of man.

"The principle which it is my desire to establish as an axiom, namely, that commerce can flourish only under the influence of popular laws, is beautifully illustrated by Dr. Watson, in his history of Philip the second, where, in speaking of the causes of the commercial prosperity of the Netherlands in the sixteenth century, that accomplished historian discourses thus eloquently:

"'The greatest advantages which nature affords for improvement in the arts of life may be rendered useless to the people who possess them, by an injudicious or tyrannical and oppressive exercise of the civil power; and universal experience proves, how vain it is to expect, that men will apply themselves with vigor to commercial pursuits when their persons are insecure, or when the fruits of their industry may be seized by the rapacious hand of a despotic prince. But happily for the inhabitants of the low countries, the sovereigns of the several provinces, (unable, perhaps, from the small extent of their dominions, to execute any plan of tyranny against the people,) were at a very early period induced to give their consent and sanction to the above-mentioned system of fundamental laws; by which, although their prerogative was abridged, yet their power and resources were greatly augmented, through that prosperity which their moderate government had enabled their subjects to attain.'

"The pages of early history prove that commerce thrives best under a republic, and that it was then, as it ever has been, the source of wealth and power to the government from which it derives protection and encouragement. This theory is well supported by the history of ancient Carthage. Originally a colony of Tyre, she imbibed from the mother country a better knowledge of the principles and practice of commerce, than was enjoyed by any other state. It became at once her peculiar pursuit and favorite occupation; it was fostered by the arm of civil power, and protected by the laws; men of all classes, the nobles as well as the meanest citizens, followed it as the most honorable, as it was the most profitable profession, and thus it was that by the reciprocal benefits of free government and commercial enterprise, this mighty republic sustained her power and preserved her institutions, during a period of seven hundred years, amidst the overthrow of nations, and the subjugation of empires; and by this she was enabled to carry on a war of forty years duration with the all-conquering Romans; a war doubtful at all times, and in which she carried terror and dismay even to the gates of Rome, and was only conquered when deprived by perfidy of the benefits of her commerce.

"The celebrated Hanseatic league, the powerful combination of the middle ages, owes its origin and successful continuance for so long a period to the liberal forms of government, and the lenient exercise of civil power, enjoyed by the several members of the confederacy. Originally entered into by the free cities of Lubeck and Hamburg, with the object of resisting the pirates who infested the Baltic, and to protect their vessels from the barbarous nations, who had very indistinct notions of 'free trade and sailors' rights,' 'they soon derived such advantages from this union,' as Gibbon informs us, 'that other towns acceded to their confederacy, and, in a short time, eighty of the most considerable cities, scattered through those vast countries, which stretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in the famous Hanseatic league, which became so formidable that its alliance was courted, and its enmity dreaded by the greatest monarchs.'

"I am not prepared to say that this mighty combination of aristocratical merchants was the best school in the world for the cultivation of liberty and equality, especially as understood at the present day, and there is abundant evidence that they were not by any means particular in the choice of customers; they bought and sold, alike with Christian, Jew,

and Infidel; they lent their money with equal freedom to the arbitrary Austrian emperor, and the enlightened Netherlanders, to assist him to rivet more firmly, and them to break asunder, the chains of despotism; and extended pecuniary assistance alike to the holy pontiff, and the stubborn reformer. The best security and the largest interest, there is reason to fear, preponderated over the desire to improve the civil condition of mankind, or extend the blessings of a reformed religion. But all this, if it be so, does not weaken the position I have assumed; the benefits of this great commercial league, whilst they were felt by the several confederated cities in the increase of wealth, the consciousness of power, and the diffusion of knowledge, spread far and wide over the civilized world, and the light then kindled on the altar of commerce, illuminated the dark places of superstition, though her priests may have been too much engaged in the pursuit of wealth, to assist in its dissemination. These were substantial benefits, and in my opinion, the causes which produced them could not have existed under an arbitrary form of government. The operations of trade must naturally tend to the diffusion of liberal opinions, albeit men will select their customers where they please, but the pure air of liberty is necessary to the existence of commerce as the favoring breeze which wafts the vessel to the 'haven where she would be,' and steady laws, administered upon settled principles, indispensable as the compass by which she is steered.

"If other examples are necessary to prove that 'where liberty dwells there is the country' of commerce, they may be found in the well regulated commercial systems of Holland, the brilliant achievements and extensive influence of the Venetian republic, and a new and better perception of the beauties of elegant literature and refined taste, which the nations imbibed from the Medician merchants of Florence. And in this category we may not omit to mention our good old mother across the waters, who, (less free in name, and form of government than some countries which have been enumerated, enjoys as large a share of the blessings of rational liberty,) owes much of her national prosperity to the wisdom and stability of her laws for the protection of commerce, and the security of the persons and property of those engaged in its pursuits.

"There is another view which presents itself of this subject, to illustrate the happy influence of free institutions of government upon the operations of commerce, and the mutual protection and support which they owe, and are bound to render to each other. As the calling of a merchant is honorable, and beneficial to the community, his views should be exalted, and his integrity above reproach; commercial character must always exercise an influence upon the mass of mankind, and contribute in a large degree to the formation of popular manners and dispositions. This character can only be created and sustained by the favorable estimation in which the individuals who compose the class are held by their fellow-citizens, and especially by those who are presumed, from their elevation to posts of honor and official trust, to give a tone to public opinion. That this character has, in our country, in former times, earned for its possessors, a rank, equal at least, to that of any other profession, the records of your own patriotic state, as well as those of others, afford abundant proofs; and in the present generation of merchants, the proportion has not fallen off; public improvement bears the impress of their liberality, and fair dealing is the characteristic of their vocation; but despotic power has ever been

opposed to the just elevation of this useful class of society, and jealous of its preponderance; and the commercial character necessarily pines and withers under its baneful influence. It is not assuming too much to say that the comparative estimate of commerce and commercial character formed by a people, may be considered as the index of their adherence to stable laws, and wise, liberal, and free government. The reason is obvious; commerce, as we have before remarked, prospers best under fixed rules of government, and the only changes it countenances, are such as conform to the spirit of improvement in its administration, and keep pace with the increasing knowledge of the age; following, rather than leading, in all such changes. A commercial circle in any country unfettered by bigotry or despotism, must necessarily be composed of the most intelligent, enterprising and quick-sighted portions of the community; none other can hold a distinguished station in such a circle. The man of commerce must know all that is passing at home or abroad, and no other profession is required to study so closely this branch of intelligence. Every action of government is first seen and felt by the commercial circle; they form, as it were, the out-post or piquet guard. The farmer, the manufacturer, the artisan, and the man of science and literature, and even the government itself, derive the earliest intelligence of distant events through the merchant.

"Now, in all truly liberal and free countries, such watchful guardians are allowed to hold an elevated position in the scale of estimate, and to enjoy an important share of individual and collective influence; but not so in countries less free, or under governments of a different character, they cannot afford to permit this influence, they could not exist beneath the light of practical intelligence such as this; hence, under all despotic forms of government, the object is to weaken the effect of commercial influence, and keep it as far as practicable in the back ground, so that its warning voice shall not be heard from the watch-towers of the nation, to disturb the action of its rulers. A government so constituted will naturally discourage an institution, which in its very nature is opposed to the existence of arbitrary power, and the perpetuation of error: and the most effectual means of attaining this object, is to lower its members in the eyes of the other classes of the community, by denying them privileges common to all others: no blame can attach to an arbitrary government for this, it is only part of a principle which unhappily exists in all parts of the world, a struggle for power, of the few over the many, which can only be corrected by the extension of liberal opinions, and the diffusion of intelligence among the people. If the autocrat of all the Russias, manages, with the aid of the privileged orders who surround his throne, to push back the Russian merchant, even to the denying him a participation in the festivities of the court, which is extended to all other classes, and thereby keeps him in a comparatively degraded position, little distinguished from that of the itinerant pedler, so much the better for the autocrat and his arbitrary edicts. The same invidious distinction was maintained even by Napoleon, the child of the revolution, nursed by democracy, and raised by popular favor: the fauxbourg St. Antoine could be easily managed at all times, but the stubborn spirit of the Bourse required to be kept in check by the hand of despotism. Political, as well as religious truth, has ever been most effectually assailed in the persons of its disciples, and the influence of the free principles of commerce can only be counteracted by the proscription of its followers."

The remainder of Mr. Hone's address is occupied with strictures on the moral influence of the penny paper system, and he gives some just notices of the standard literature of the past and present time; closing with a few remarks on the importance of cultivating the powers of elocution, as the most likely road to preferment in a country where none are born to official stations.

The anniversary poem, delivered before the Mercantile Library Association on the same occasion, is appended to Mr. Hone's address. The subject, "Culture," selected by Mr. Lunt, is happily illustrated in a poem as deeply imbued with sound philosophy, as it is replete with classic and poetic images.

ART. VII.—TOBACCO AND SNUFF ADMINISTRATION OF FRANCE.

THE monopoly of these articles produces to the government about 44,000,000 francs; the expenditure is about 23,000,000 francs; 16,000,000 of which are for the purchases of home grown or colonial tobacco, which is purchased and prepared by the government, and sold to the public by appointed agents. A general director, one sub-director, eight chiefs of offices, and forty clerks and subordinates, compose the central administration, and the cost of these officials is 150,000 francs. There are six general inspectors of the culture, at 6,000 or 7,000 francs each; twenty-six mounted inspectors of brigades and sub-brigadiers, seventy mounted surveyors, thirty unmounted brigadiers, and one hundred unmounted surveyors. Altogether two hundred and thirty-two employes, salaries 300,000 francs. The warehouses where the home grown tobacco is deposited, are twenty in number. There are twenty store-keepers, twenty controllers, and about fifty clerks; total, ninety officials, who cost 220,000 francs. There are ten tobacco and snuff manufactories, each of them with one *regisseur*, (manager,) one inspector of the manufacture, a controller and sub-controller of manufacture, one store-keeper, eight clerks of first or second class, an apprentice in fabrication, at 2,500 francs a year! (all under the control of two general inspectors,) and about 1,200 laborers. Total for the manufacture, 1,342 officials, receiving 1,640,000 francs. As to the sale, there are thirty-five general entrepots of manufactured tobacco and snuff, with thirty-five directors, twenty controllers of first and second class, one hundred and fifty officials of first and second class, and three hundred and forty subordinate employes; altogether five hundred and five placemen, of whom the salaries amount to 440,000 francs. Then come the debitants (dealers) appointed by the government, and who are paid by a per centage on the amount of the sales. Their number is not limited, and, for the whole of France, it is not under five thousand five hundred; so that the officials and dependents of the direction *des tabacs* amount to seven thousand seven hundred and ninety. Besides the active officials and dependents, there are about three hundred and eighty ex-employes, receiving an allowance or gratuity, not being entitled to a pension; and about one thousand five hundred pensioners of the excise and tobacco administrations. The amount paid is 160,000 francs for the first, and about 800,000 francs for the others.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

The money market presents very nearly the same appearances as for the last six months, viz: a low rate of interest, an accumulation of money in the great depositories, with a continued advance in almost all descriptions of property. The imports, which swelled considerably in amount during the third quarter of the old fiscal year, or the first quarter according to the new arrangement, by which the year takes date on the 1st of July, instead of October 1st, as before, have since fallen off very considerably. That increase of imports did not, however, produce any increased demand for bank facilities; and their decline has not, therefore, lessened the employment of money, in any great degree. The unemployed capital continues to accumulate, as evinced in the returns of the New York banks, to the 1st December, as compared with the former returns, as follows:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK—JANUARY, AUGUST AND NOVEMBER, 1843.

	January.	August.	November.
Loans and discounts,	.....	$53,007,207	$53,267,130
" " to directors,	$52,348,467	4,155,775	4,537,536
" " to brokers,		1,430,099	3,709,463
Real estate,	3,568,725	4,063,595	4,081,636
Bonds and mortgages,	12,446,083	3,644,870	3,772,037
Stocks and promissory notes,		12,330,987	11,665,311
Due from directors other than loans,	.....	39,788	48,084
" brokers " "	.....	212,219	810,160
Bank fund,	770,372	527,756	389,392
Loss and expense,	948,738	554,613	639,238
Overdrafts,	87,328	98,639	105,947
Specie,	8,417,076	14,091,779	11,502,789
Cash items,	2,273,131	2,734,417	3,102,856
Bills of banks suspended,	4,888,987	4,906,292	4,033,105
		231,517	228,951
Due from banks,	7,700,044	11,728,808	9,700,629
Add for cents,	.....	.....	438
	$93,508,951	$113,759,871	$111,614,722
Liabilities.			
Capital,	$43,950,137	$43,019,571	$43,369,152
Profits,	4,129,699	4,011,923	4,164,254
Circulation, old issue,	12,031,871	7,912,680	5,227,930
" registered,		6,608,663	11,985,171
Due the state,	.....	531,762	963,198
Canal fund,	1,495,888	741,382	1,157,203
Depositors,	19,100,415	24,679,230	27,389,160
Individuals,	213,411	316,453	587,871
Banks,	12,072,679	21,340,748	14,642,143
Treasurer United States,	.....	4,033,385	1,645,320
Other items,	401,441	570,276	505,279
Total,	$93,508,951	$113,765,579	$111,614,722

The regular loans of the banks, it appears, are but about $260,000 in advance of those of August. The loans to the directors of the banks are larger. Those gentlemen are all of them of the most extensive merchants of the city; and, in a regular state of business, the demand for facilities would first come from such a quarter. The amount of business paper created is, however, in the aggregate, but small; so small that, during the next quarter, probably, greater difficulty will be found in investing the proceeds of paper, which matures within a circle of sixty days. This latter circumstance has been the cause of the increased amount loaned to brokers; who, for the most part, employ the means

thus obtained in stock operations, and have, in some degree, contributed to the rapid rise in all descriptions of public securities. The following is a table of present rates:—

PRICES OF STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

	Rate.	Redeemable.	April, 1843.	October.	December 20.
United States,.....	5½	1844	... a ...	101 a ...	... a 102
"	6	1844	... a ...	102¾ a 102½	102½ a 102¾
"	6	1862	112 a 113	114¼ a 115½	115¾ a 116
"	5	1853	... a ...	103 a 103¼	... a 104
New York,.....	7	1848–49	105 a 106	107 a 108	107½ a 108½
"	6	1850–54–60	103 a 105	107 a 107½	107¾ a 108
"	6	1861–62–67	103 a 105	107 a 107½	... a ...
"	5½	1860–61–65	97 a 98	102 a 102¼	... a ...
"	5	1845	97 a 98	... a 100	... a ...
"	5	1846–7–8–9	... a ...	99 a 100	103 a 103½
"	5	1850–51–57	... a ...	99 a 100	103 a 103½
"	5	1855–58	93 a 94	98 a 99	100 a 101
"	5	1859–60–61	94 a 95	99 a 99	100 a 101
"	4½	1849–58	87 a 88	91 a 93	... a ...
Ohio,.....	6	1850	69 a 70	94½ a 94½	102½ a 103
"	6	1856–60	67 a 68	95 a 95½	103¼ a 104
"	5	1850–56	54 a 55	82½ a 83	... a ...
Kentucky,.....	6	.....	89 a 89½	97½ a 98	108¾ a 109
Illinois,.....	6	1870	23 a 23½	35¼ a 36½	46¼ a 47
Indiana,.....	5	25 years.	25 a 26	35 a 35¼	47 a 47½
Arkansas,.....	6	.....	28½ a 30	38 a 45	45 a 50
Alabama,.....	6	.....	50 a 60	60 a 67	... a ...
"	5	.....	... a ...	58 a 60	84 a 85
Pennsylvania,.....	5	.....	41 a 42	61 a 61½	69 a 69¼
Tennessee,.....	6	.....	... a ...	90 a 92	107 a 108
New York city,....	7	1857	107 a 110	111 a 112	111 a 112
"	7	1852	106 a 108	107 a 108	108 a 108½
"	5	1850	94 a 95	99 a 99½	102¾ a 103
"	5	1858–70	94 a 95	99½ a 100	103 a 103½

The rise is here very great, particularly in Ohio and Kentucky stocks, which have advanced from 20 to 36 per cent. The small amount of money thrown by the banks into the stock market had, however, no other effect than to accelerate an improvement in prices which was otherwise inevitable, from the general plenteousness of money. The New York market is the great centre of moneyed operations; but the advance in Virginia and South Carolina stocks, which are comparatively unknown in the New York market, has been as great at the south as other stocks here. Notwithstanding that the aggregate loans have increased, the idle means of the banks have also increased. The United States government drew out $2,300,000, which, it appears, returned to the banks as individual deposits, there being no means of prompt investment; and the unemployed deposits of the banks stand now at a point higher than ever before, with one exception. At the same time, the balance due banks has been reduced from $10,000,000 to $5,000,000. As an index to the movement of business during the year, as compared with former ones, we will take a table of the tolls on the New York state canals, the receipts of flour and wheat at tide-water; the Ohio canal tolls, and the receipts of flour and wheat at Cleveland, as follows:—

	New York Canals.		*Ohio Canals.*					
			RECEIPTS AT CLEVELAND.					
	Flour and Wheat, eql. to bbls. Flour.	Tolls.	Flour. *Bbls.*	Wheat. *Bush.*	Pork. *Bbls.*	Ohio canal. *Tolls.*	Miami canal. *Tolls.*
1839,.....	1,007,311	$1,599,038	264,887	1,515,820	30,7174	$23,599	$78,601
1840,.....	2,046,716	1,773,583	505,461	2,155,407	23,017	452,112	70,321
1841,.....	1,756,211	2,033,262	441,425	1,564,421	29.797	416,292	72,612
1842,.....	1,747,448	1,748,870	492,711	1,311,665	52,272	387,442	71,500
1843,.....	2,246,621	2,081,646	577,369	813,536	13,177	304,887	73,153

This gives a large increase in the trade of the state of New York, consisting of the produce of other states, poured through the great canal. Of that produce, however, it appears that the proportion furnished by Ohio has greatly fallen off. The decline in the quantity of flour and wheat which has reached Cleveland, is equal to about 15,000 barrels of flour, and in pork about 39,000 barrels, or 75 per cent. The tolls show a corresponding diminution. This decline in the trade of Ohio is attributable to the low price of provisions, and the great competition from the other western states. Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and Iowa, are sending forth enormous and constantly increasing supplies of produce. These supplies, borne on the bosom of the great lakes, pour through the Erie canal to market in great abundance, and the price sinks under the competition. Those states which are the most prolific, and can produce at least cost, will monopolize the market. Illinois enjoys an advantage over Ohio in this particular, because her lands will yield more for the same amount of labor, and the cost of production is less, because there is comparatively no taxation. The effect of these operating causes is seen in the fact that, while the Erie canal, the great artery for the western business, shows an increase of business, the Ohio canals show a decline. The low prices of agricultural produce, yielding scarcely more than the cost of transportation to market, leaves very little surplus applicable to the purchase of goods, or to the supply of that currency so much needed by the western states. The following table will show the leading features of the banks in several states, on the 1st November, 1843 and 1842:—

BANKS OF SEVERAL STATES, NOVEMBER 1, 1843 AND 1842.

	1842.		1843.	
	Loans.	Specie.	Loans.	Specie.
Indiana,.....	$2,897,917	$779,047	$2,640,695	$969 306
Illinois,.....	3,229,372	798,998	none.	.....
Ohio,.....	6,376,950	825,010	3,944,371	768,032
New Orleans,....	48,153,068	1,911,594	24,069,020	6,377,316
South Carolina,...	4,077,486	419,142	3,936,540	662,449
New York,.....	52,386,467	8,477,076	61,534,129	11,502,789
Massachusetts,....	44,610,391	2,682,300	42,993,291	7,298,815
	$161,731,881	$15,913,167	$139,018,046	$27,578,707
	Circulation.	Deposits.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Indiana,.....	$1,732,518	$181,248	$2,115,225	$200,248
Illinois,.....	2,212,127	164,552	none.	.....
Ohio,.....	1,314,663	1,605,633	2,203,976	527,843
New Orleans,.....	1,724,080	2,390,740	1,178,637	4,427,047
South Carolina,...	1,094,993	1,660,354	1,392,107	1,126,232
New York,.....	12,031,871	19,100,415	17,213,101	27,389,160
Massachusetts,....	8,049,906	6,130,164	9,219,267	10,213,887
	$28,160,158	$31,233,106	$33,222,313	$43,884,417

These aggregates give the following result:—

	1842.	1843.	Increase.	Decrease.
Loans,.....	$161,731,881	$139,018,046	.....	$22,713,835
Specie, ...	15,913,167	27,576,707	$11,665,542	.....
Circulation,.....	28,160,158	33,322,313	5,162,155	.....
Deposits,.....	31,233,106	43,884,417	12,651,311	.....

In Louisiana, Ohio, and Illinois, many banks have been put in liquidation during the year. The Indiana State Bank now furnishes the paper currency for nearly the whole of the states of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, and the prolific territories of Iowa and Wisconsin. There is, therefore, a great scarcity of a circulating medium in those sections, which is becoming gradually supplied with the precious metals; an operation retarded, however, by the want of an outlet for agricultural produce sufficiently large to raise its

money value. Notwithstanding the reduction in the loans of the banks, it appears that the deposits have swollen near 40 per cent, consisting mostly of specie, which stands 70 per cent higher than last year, and is very nearly equal to the outstanding bank circulation in the seven enumerated states. This state of banking credits leads to the conclusion that the general internal trade of the country, and its external commerce, will grow no faster than the money value of the sales of the produce of sections, and the export of the surplus produce of the whole Union. There can be no sudden renewal of credit purchases; and those accumulations of capital appropriated to the facilitating of that method of business, will be very slowly absorbed in profitable employment.

The commercial intercourse between Great Britain and the United States has, during the past few years, been greatly curtailed from the amount to which the value of yearly interchange between the two countries attained in 1836 and 1837. In the English parliament, this matter of the decline in the American trade has been frequently referred to, more particularly in the debate of the 29th July last, when the exports of British goods to the United States were represented to have fallen from £12,427,000, in 1836, to £5,200,000, in 1838; rising to £7,098,000 in 1839, and again reduced to £3,528,000, in 1842. Lord John Russell, on that occasion, referred the decline to the restrictive policy of England; and Sir Robert Peel, in answer, did not deny the falling off in trade; but, at the same time, overlooked the true cause of that decline, viz: the position of the banking system of this country. It is astonishing how little weight is given to the agency of banking, in creating a sale for British goods, even by those most accustomed to consider the subject. In many quarters, of high commercial authority, hopes are expressed of a speedy recovery in the trade with this country; while the fact that the banking system, in nine states of the Union, is entirely destroyed, is overlooked. In order to understand this matter, in relation to the present relative position of the country, it will be necessary to review the past. In the year 1828, the United States Bank was in full vigor and credit, with its capital of $35,000,000 actively employed, and exercising a governing power over three hundred and twenty-nine banks, in all the states of the Union. The aggregate capital was $110,192,268; making, with the United States Bank capital, $145,192,268. That year 1828 was marked by three important events—the accession of General Jackson to the presidency, the imposition of the high tariff, and the commencement of the government hostility against the United States Bank. The operation of the tariff was to check imports of goods, and accumulate specie in the vaults of the Atlantic banks; more particularly in those of the United States Bank, which controlled the state institutions. The specie in that institution rose from $6,000,000 to $11,000,000, in one year. This enabled the bank to push out its loans; and they rose from $33,000,000, in 1828, to $66,000,000, in 1832. This movement of the governing money power was followed by that of all the other banks. The plenteousness of money thus created, favored the multiplication of banks; which were necessary, as it was supposed, to take the place of the United States Bank, the charter of which was to expire in 1836. In 1832, this movement was accelerated by the removal of the deposits from the United States Bank, into the vaults of banks in all the states, with an injunction "to loan liberally to merchants." In this way, the number of banks, and the amount of capital, advanced as follows:—

	Number of Banks.	Capital.
January, 1830,.....	330	$145,192,268
" 1837,.....	632	290,772,091
" 1840,.....	661	358,442,692

The direction which this capital and credit took, in their employment, was to encourage the purchase and consumption of goods on credit. The great London houses were then so liberal in their facilities, that almost any person of fair standing in the states could

make large purchases of goods in the manufacturing districts, and draw upon the London banker in his own favor. The houses granting these credits usually fixed a specific day for payment; but these payments were proverbially irregular. The facility of buying goods would not have operated well without corresponding facilities here to sell. These facilities were found in the constant multiplication of banks, and their competition for business. The importer, who purchased goods in England on an open credit, sold them at long dates to the jobber, whose note the banks readily discounted, with the importer's endorsement. The jobber, in his turn, sent agents, drummers, and salesmen, in all directions over the country, and offered almost unlimited time to the country dealers. These latter bought largely, giving their notes at eight, twelve, and eighteen months; which notes were discounted on the Atlantic border, with the jobber's endorsement, and made payable at the bank in the interior nearest the dealer's place of residence. The country dealer, possessing such facilities of purchasing, in his turn sold to the consumers on credit, waiting "another crop" for his pay. In this way, very soon, a whole year's crop had been consumed in advance. The farmer owed the storekeeper, the storekeeper the jobber, the jobber the importer, and the latter the London house. This whole chain of indebtedness was sustained only by the renewal of notes, and was continued as long as the banks were able to do this, or until the London houses demanded payment. This latter took place in 1836, in which year the imports from England to the United States reached their highest amount, £12,427,000. Simultaneously with this demand, the federal government discredited bank paper, by requiring specie in payment of the public lands. The result was bank suspension. The London houses failed utterly. The New York and eastern banks immediately called in their long loans, and required the jobbers here to pay up instalments of 5 to 10 per cent, every sixty days. This stopped all further purchases, and sales on credit; and the imports from England fell one-half. The United States Bank, and those of the south and west, did not return to specie payments, but continued their loans; which fact facilitated the collection of debts due New York. In 1838, most of the present state debts were created, and sold in England. Their proceeds were brought home in the shape of goods, which were sold in the same manner as before. When discredit overtook those stocks, the final failure of the United States Bank, and most of those of the south and west, followed. The contraction and liquidation of most of these banks has been going on for the last three years, and are the real cause of the decline in imports, the tariff and rates of duty having been constantly falling; and were lower in 1842, when the exports from England to this country were £3,258,000, than they had been since the war. The number of banks and their capitals, in the several states, for several periods, up to the present month, are as follows:—

NUMBER OF BANKS, AND THEIR AGGREGATE CAPITAL, IN EACH STATE, AT THREE PERIODS.

	1830.		1839.		1842.	
	No. Banks.	Capital.	No. Banks.	Capital.	No. Banks.	Capital.
Maine,.....	18	$2,050,000	48	$4,671,500	37	$2,925,000
New Hampshire,.	18	1,791,670	28	2,939,508	27	2,847,508
Vermont,.....	10	432,625	19	1,325,530	7	597,810
Massachusetts,...	66	20,420,000	118	34,485,600	108	32,631,000
Rhode Island,....	47	6,118,397	62	9,983,969	62	9,823,558
Connecticut,.....	31	4,485,177	31	8,806,204	31	8,580,593
New York,.....	37	20,083,353	159	52,028,781	131	43,019,577
New Jersey,.....	18	2,017,009	26	3,822,607	25	3,470,000
Pennsylvania,*...	33	14,610,333	48	24,286,405	35	18,794,230
U. States,...	1	35,000,000	1	35,000,000	...	.....
Delaware,.....	5	830,000	3	881,518	3	881,518
Maryland,*.....	13	6,250,495	21	10,526,494	11	6,850,000
Dis. of Columbia,	9	3,875,794	6	1,768,074	6	1,745,155
Virginia, ...	4	5,571,100	6	10,139,406	6	10,130,000

NUMBER OF BANKS, etc.—Continued.

	1830.		1839.		1843.	
	No. Banks.	Capital.	No. Banks.	Capital.	No. Banks.	Capital.
North Carolina,.	3	3,195,000	3	3,154,761	3	3,225,000
South Carolina,.	5	4,631,000	12	11,584,355	7	8,160,800
Georgia, ...	9	4,203,829	21	15,119,219	15	10,187,000
Florida,*	1	75,000	3	4,582,236	...	.....
Alabama, ...	2	643,000	3	10,685,405	1	1,500,000
Louisiana,*	4	5,665,980	16	41,737,691	6	20,925,140
Mississippi,*	1	950,600	23	30,397,857	1	350,000
Tennessee, ...	1	737,817	3	7,187,921	4	6,488,192
Kentucky, ...	...	.....	6	9,329,088	5	9,036,108
Missouri, ...	...	.....	1	1,116,123	1	1,000,000
Illinois,*	...	.....	2	5,423,185	...	.....
Indiana,*	...	.....	1	2,595,221	1	2,595,221
Ohio, ...	11	1,454,386	36	10,507,521	8	2,150,000
Michigan,*	1	100,000	9	1,229,200	2	350,000
Arkansas,*	...	.....	2	3,495,857	...	.....
Total, ...	329	$145,202,565	618	$358,793,326	543	$208,253,410

The states marked thus * are delinquent in their government debts, and it is remarkable that precisely in those states the greatest fluctuation has taken place. $150,000,000 of bank capital has gone into liquidation. Of this, the bankrupt states have lost $108,524,000, or two-thirds of the whole. The debts of these states amount to $125,400,000, of which $78,900,000 was contracted for bank capital. The remaining portion of the bank capital was the subscription of individuals in Europe and the eastern states. Deducting the debt contracted for bank capital from the whole amount of the debt, leaves $46,500,000 contracted for other purposes. Adding this to the bank capital, leaves $154,024,000 as the amount sent into those states from Europe and the eastern states, and which has mostly been consumed and lost. The remains of that vast sum are now slowly finding their way back to their original owners. The vast sum which sought those states in the few years from 1830 to 1839, was mostly in the shape of consumable goods. The current has ceased; and has been, during the last few years, setting the other way. Instead of $200,000,000 seeking the west on credit, through the hands of merchants and dealers, loading the canals and public works, and employing armies of laborers and speculators, who were producing nothing, the remains of those loans and credits are coming back in produce, at low money prices. Every $100, which was then borrowed at a value equal to ten barrels of flour, is now being repaid, if at all, in a value equal to twenty barrels of flour. These immense drains upon the industry of the people must, for a length of time, operate in preventing any material rise in the rate of interest; because the door is closed which was formerly open to a large demand, while the supply of capital is accumulating in quarters where it seeks investment.

EXPORTS OF TEA.

Exports of Tea from Canton to the United States, from June 30th, 1842, to June 4th, 1843, stated in chests.

Young Hyson, ...	77,299	Souchong, ...	34,774
Hyson, ...	14,885	Powchong, ...	8,648
Hyson Skin, ...	15,992	Pekoe, ...	1,028
Twankay, ...	4,101	Orange Pekoe, ...	560
Gunpowder, ...	9,869	Bohea, ...	757
Imperial, ...	7,573		
Congo, ...	2,718	Total chests, ...	178,204
Pongees, ...packages	7,875	Sweetmeats, ...boxes	2,026
Canton silk, ...cases	67	Cassia, ...piculs	8,535
Rhubarb, ...boxes	666		

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

MARINE INSURANCE.

In the United States Circuit Court, at Boston, December, 1843, an action was brought by Joseph Lawrence *vs.* the New Bedford Commercial Insurance Company, before Judge Joseph Story, on a policy of insurance for $4,000 on "catchings" on the barque Boston, of New London. The policy was dated December 5, 1842, the risk to commence April 24, 1842, "lost or not lost."

The principal ground of defence was, that the vessel was unseaworthy.

It appeared that the plaintiff purchased the barque, at second hand, in 1835, when he had her thoroughly repaired, at an expense of $7,000. She went one whaling voyage, and returned in 1837. She went another voyage, and, on her return, in 1839, met with a severe gale. She sailed on her last voyage in June, 1841.

As to the weather which she encountered, there was some conflict in the testimony. A part of the witnesses testified that it was very severe in October, when the vessel sprung a leak, and in the three succeeding months. In February, it was more severe than ever. Whales were in sight, but no attempts were made to take them, on account of the weather.

In March there was another severe gale.

In April (when the policy attached) the vessel arrived at Banks's Peninsula, Akerora Bay, when she underwent some repairs and proceeded on her voyage. In May she had a severe gale, but held on in her business until August, when she encountered a very severe gale, according to the log book and the testimony of the master and mate. She arrived at the Bay of Islands in September, and a survey was called by the master. The cargo was ordered to be taken out, and there were three surveys. It was found that four lower deck beams were broken down; twelve knees were required, and a large quantity of timber. The surveyor reported that she was in a very shattered condition, and totally unfit to proceed to sea with her cargo; and that it would cost more than her value to repair her. She was accordingly sold.

The whole insurance was	$22,000
Of which there was, on the ship and outfits,	18,000
On the catchings,	4,000

There was a large salvage, and the plaintiff sought to recover in this action the balance due on the policy on the catchings. The policies on the ship and outfits were underwritten by other officers in New Bedford, and abide the event of the present suit.

There was some contradiction between the witnesses in the case as to the stress of weather which the vessel had encountered both before and after the policy had attached.

The defendants contended that the vessel was not seaworthy, and had been gradually worn out by weather which a seaworthy vessel could have encountered with perfect safety; that, at all events, she had become unseaworthy before April 24, when the policy was to attach; and that it consequently never did attach.

The plaintiff contended that the vessel was seaworthy both before and after the 24th of April; but that, if she was seaworthy when she left New Haven, it was sufficient, even if she became unseaworthy before April 24, because, as the policy contained the clause "lost or not lost," it would attach even if she became unseaworthy before April 24.

Judge Story, in charging the jury, ruled this point against the plaintiff, and held that,

where the time when the policy is to attach is prior to the date of the policy, and it contains the clause "lost or not lost," if the vessel is lost before the time when it is to attach, it never does attach; but if lost afterwards, it does attach, even though the loss occurs before the date of the policy. In this case, if the vessel was not seaworthy on April 24, the policy never did attach, and the plaintiff could not recover.

The learned judge then went into an extended examination of the law of insurance, particularly as to seaworthiness, and then reviewed minutely the evidence and the course of the voyage. In conclusion, he stated to the jury that they were to judge of the facts, and if they had perceived any bias in his mind, as to the *facts* in the case, still they were to rely on their own convictions. He added that, in the thirty-two years in which he had presided in this court, he had the satisfaction of believing that the verdicts in cases tried before him had been the *verdicts of the juries*, and not his verdicts.

The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiff.

PRIVATE EXPRESSES.

In the United States District Court, November, 1843, an action was brought by the United States *vs.* Adams & Co., to recover $100, being the penalty imposed by the act of 1825 for carrying two letters, or $50 for each. Messrs. Adams were charged generally with carrying letters in packages, knowing the packages to contain them, and also that letters were carried by their agents, Messrs. Fisher & Stevens, in the steamboat New Haven, and that defendants procured it to be done, which, it is contended, brings them within the statute. The action was entered by order of the United States government at Washington, to test the right of the express lines, in particular, to carry letters, the revenue of the post-office, it is said, being much injured by them.

On the part of the government it was proved that, upon one occasion, a man named Stevens, who was agent to defendants, received some $3 or $4 for carrying letters from Boston to Norwich, and that, on several other occasions, a number of parcels containing letters were left at Adams & Co.'s office, and that they procured them to be forwarded to their respective destinations. They also proved that, since the establishment of those express lines, the post-office revenue had fallen off nearly $7,000 a quarter.

On the part of the defendants it is contended that they do not come within the provisions of the statute, inasmuch as it does not prohibit the carrying of parcels, and that they have never knowingly sent, or procured to be sent, any letters; nor are they bound, nor would they be authorized, to open any parcels that might be sent to their establishment. They proved that the man Stevens was only one day employed by them, in consequence of the illness of their regular agent, and that they had no knowledge of his having received any money, as alleged by plaintiff.

Judge Betts charged that the law of 1825 was made to prevent a continuance of the system then in use, of vessels and stages having a box in which letters were deposited by the public for the place of destination. The schedule alludes to vessels and stages; and an amendment, in 1827, added horse or foot posts. He did not consider the law to apply to passengers, or other persons carrying letters on their persons or in their trunks. Congress, if it saw fit, might pass a law prohibiting any person whatever carrying letters, as it prohibits contraband goods; but it has seen the operation of this new system of expresses which has sprung up, and not taken any steps in relation to it. If Messrs. Adams & Co. employed a vehicle (whether called car, or crate, or anything else) on a post road, or watercourse considered a post road, and made a business of it, knowingly carrying letters for hire, they are liable; but if they themselves, or their agents, merely carried letters on their persons, or carried them in packages without knowing the contents of such packages, they are not liable. Neither are the defendants liable for the acts of their agents, if those acts were committed contrary to their directions.

The jury returned a verdict for defendants.

RETURN OF DUTIES ON WHEAT AND FLOUR RESHIPPED.

In the United States Circuit Court, November, 1843, Benjamin Kidd and others *vs.* Samuel Swartwout, collector, Judge Betts presiding.

In 1836, the plaintiffs, through Grinnell & Minturn, their agents, purchased and shipped a quantity of wheat and flour from New York, consigned to George Wilde & Co., of London, to be sold for their account. Upon its arrival in London it was entered at the custom-house, where it continued under the custom-house lock and key. It appeared that the sale was lost in London, and it was reshipped by George Wilde & Co., and consigned to Grinnell, Minturn & Co. On its arrival in New York, the consignees claimed to have it entered as American produce; the collector, however, refused, on the ground that it had changed hands, and compelled Grinnell, Minturn & Co. to pay the duties on it, amounting to $3,436 29. Mr. Grinnell entered a protest at the time, and the present action is brought to be refunded those duties.

After the plaintiffs' counsel had closed his case, the district attorney stated that he did not intend to make any defence, except merely to see that the plaintiffs had made out their case, and if so, he had no objection to their getting a verdict, and having those duties refunded. He said the question here turned on the construction of the 47th section of the act of 1799, in relation to American produce sent out of this country and afterwards reshipped. He then read the section alluded to, which stated that, on American produce brought back, no duty should be demanded, provided certain regulations therein mentioned were complied with. He thought the identity of the flour was not sufficiently proved, nor was there any evidence of those regulations being complied with.

Judge Betts charged that, if it were American wheat and flour, it was the duty of the party claiming here to show that it was so; and next, to show that it was returned in the same condition as it was when it went from this country. The act of 1799 referred the matter to the custom-house officers, the collector and the controller, and it was for them to be satisfied as to whether the requirements of that act were complied with, and they are the proper parties to ascertain those facts. The evidence of identity, and of a compliance with the regulations pointed out by the act, is sufficient; and the principal question is one of law, whether the sale of a portion of the goods changed their American character. Judge Betts intimated his opinion that the act would not bear that construction. The jury found a verdict for the plaintiffs, without retiring, of $4,915 63, including interest.

AUCTIONEERS AND COMMISSION MERCHANTS.

An action of assumpsit was recently brought in the Court of Common Pleas, Boston, by Henshaw, Ward & Co. *vs.* Thomas W. Seers & Co., in which the plaintiffs declared upon certain warranties alleged to be made by the defendants, under the following circumstances:—

On the 9th of August, 1843, the defendants, who were auctioneers and commission merchants in Boston, advertised in the newspapers, for sale at public auction, "two cases of Manilla indigo, of superior quality." On the same day it was exposed in the sales-room to public examination, and was seen by Mr. Ward, who, as well as other purchasers, had an opportunity of examining the article; and being the highest bidder, he bought the indigo at sixty-five cents per pound. A bill of sale was made to the said Henshaw, Ward & Co., in which the article was called "two cases of indigo," and it was paid for in cash—amounting to $262 92. A few days afterwards, the plaintiffs resold the indigo at auction; but the purchasers returned it to the auctioneer, calling it a spurious article. On being notified of this, the plaintiffs immediately rescinded the sale, took back the indigo, and then called on defendants to take back the indigo from them, and return the money which had been paid for it.

Henshaw, Ward & Co. also sent the indigo to the store of the defendants, who knew nothing of the spurious character when they sold it, but the latter declined to receive it, or to disclose the name of their principal, being, as they stated, requested by the person who consigned the article to them not to make him known in the transaction; and to defend any suit or legal process, and the defendants were to be indemnified therefor.

It was proved that the indigo, so sold, was composed of the following ingredients, discovered by accurate chemical analysis:—

Chromate of iron,	20 parts.
Prussian blue,	76 "
Potash, &c.,	4 "
	100

And that there was no "indigo," or "Manilla indigo," at all in the compound; that it was wholly worthless for any of the uses of manufacturing; that, when mixed with sulphuric acid, it would, instead of giving the beautiful hue of indigo, at once turn white; and that it was not such an article as was known in commerce as indigo.

On the other hand, it was proved that real Manilla indigo was of the most variable qualities and prices, sometimes selling as low as fifteen cents per pound; that it contained alloy in different proportions; that it was the poorest kind of indigo, as compared with that which was imported from other countries in the East Indies; that an article similar in appearance, and equally worthless with that in question, and which, in the opinion of the witnesses, was imported from Manilla, had been sold at auction in Boston, two years ago, "as Manilla indigo;" that this indigo, bought by plaintiffs, was done up in genuine Manilla packages, and was of such a character and appearance as readily to deceive the most experienced purchasers of the article. The plaintiffs' counsel expressly disclaimed any imputation of fraud, or of any conduct in any wise dishonorable or improper on the part of the defendants, but claimed to recover on the warranties as above stated.

The writ contained five counts, setting forth the warranty in different forms; and the plaintiffs' counsel contended—

1. That the advertisement contained in the newspaper was, in law, a warranty that the article sold was "Manilla indigo of superior quality."

2. That the bill of sale was a warranty that the article sold was "indigo."

3. That the law implied that the defendants warranted that the article sold was what it was denominated to be; and that the defendants, having undertaken to sell indigo, must sell an article which should be indigo in fact, and not a wholly spurious article; or, in other words, it must be known to merchants as indigo.

The defendants' counsel contended that, at a sale by public auction, where there was a full opportunity for inspection of the article, and it was examined by the purchaser, he must be considered as purchasing on his own judgment; the law would not imply any warranty in his favor from the description of the article contained in the advertisement or in the bill of parcels.

Judge Warren ruled that the bill of sale was, in law, an express warranty that the article sold was indigo in fact; that, if it was agreed or proved that the article sold was not in fact indigo, nor known to merchants as indigo, and the plaintiffs had offered to return the same within a reasonable time, they would be entitled to recover the money they paid therefor, and interest. If the article was so manufactured as to deceive skilful judges, the fact of the plaintiffs having had an opportunity to examine it, would not relieve the defendants from liability.

Thereupon a verdict was taken by consent for the plaintiffs, in the sum of $267 53, reserving to the defendants the right to except to the ruling of the judge, if they should think it advisable.

INSURANCE ON CARGO.

In the Supreme Court, Philadelphia, November, 1843, Francia & Brothers *vs.* The Phœnix Insurance Company, an action on a policy of insurance was brought by the plaintiffs, executed June 11th, 1838, upon a cargo of fruits, wine, and cork, valued at $21,000, and shipped, or said to have been shipped on board the brig Ruth, from Gibraltar for Baltimore, but which was lost on the passage. The evidence was that the cork was not on board the vessel, and also that the cargo had been previously insured in London for about $12,000, which sum had been paid the plaintiffs. Payment of the present claim was resisted, on the ground that the $12,000, which had been paid by the London underwriters, was a full indemnity for the fruit and wines which were on board and were lost, and consequently that the plaintiffs could demand no further indemnity from the defendants. To this it was replied, that this was a policy in which the value of the shipment was fixed. It was entered into for the purpose of securing not only the goods, but the profits on their shipment to this country, and the parties were bound by the value stated in the contract. As to the payment of the $12,000 by the London underwriters, the plaintiffs acknowledged that it should be deducted from the sum named in the policy, and this, together with a deduction for the value of the cork which was not on board, and counting the estimated profits upon the wines and fruit, would show a balance in his favor of about $5,000. The defendants, on the other hand, contended that the policy of insurance placed the value of $21,000 upon a cargo of wines, fruit, and *cork*; that the absence of the cork from the cargo altered the character of the contract from a valued to an open policy, and that, therefore, the plaintiffs could only recover for the actual worth of the articles lost, throwing the estimated profits out of the question, the same as if the insurance had been upon a cargo of fruit and wines generally, without naming their value. In this view of the case, witnesses were examined to prove that the amount received by the plaintiffs from the London underwriters was as much as the cargo was worth.

Judge Kennedy charged the jury in favor of points made by the defendants; but said that it was their duty to return the amount of the premium which had been paid for effecting the insurance, and, as it had not appeared that this had been done, their verdict might be for the plaintiffs for that amount. The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiffs for $2,901 91.

CERTIFICATES OF DEPOSIT.

In the Circuit Court of New York, Judge Kent presiding, (in the case of Jacob Little and others *vs.* The St. Louis Perpetual Insurance Company,) an action was brought by the endorsee of certain certificates of deposit of the St. Louis Perpetual Insurance Company.

One of the certificates ran in these words: "Samuel B. Knapp has deposited on his own account, in current bank notes, $1000, payable to his order one day after date, with interest at the rate of (blank) per annum. St. Louis, May 17th, 1841." The other certificate was in similar terms, except that the money was stated to be in Kentucky bank bills, and payable in one month after date.

On the part of the defence it was contended that, the deposit being in current bank notes, at St. Louis, and in Kentucky bank bills, the amount must be understood as being payable in the same currency, and that, not being money, the papers were not negotiable, and the endorsee could not maintain his action on them.

The Judge said that, if he considered only that the money was payable in current funds or Kentucky bank bills, he should consider the certificate not negotiable, because the court could not judicially know that such currency was money or cash at St. Louis. But, taking the whole paper together, it appeared that the amount was specified in dollars, payable without qualification to the order of the party, at a credit and with interest.

It was therefore to be considered as payable in cash, and therefore negotiable. Verdict for plaintiffs—on the first check, $5,690; and on the second check, $4,700.

INSURANCE—DAMAGE BY COLLISION.

A case was decided in Louisiana, several months ago, involving an interesting point of law, upon which there seems to be some difference of opinion, even among those "who ought to know." It was a libel, filed by the owners of the ship Harriet, against the ship Louisville, for damages done to the Harriet by the careless or negligent conduct on board the Louisville, when she was lying at anchor outside the bar, at the mouth of the south-west pass, one of the outlets of the Mississippi river, by which collision the Harriet was injured in the sum of $2,701 07.

It appeared at the trial, before Mr. Justice M'Kinley, that the Harriet was outward-bound, and came to anchor immediately in the thoroughfare of one of the passes; and that, too, after having been run foul of by another vessel, while at anchor about a year before, in the same place. She was run foul of by the Louisville; the latter having drifted and become unmanageable by the wind dying away.

Upon these facts, the judge decided that, even if it had been possible to have avoided the collision—had everything been done that it was possible to do on board the Louisville—yet, so far as the Harriet was concerned, the Louisville was entitled to the full use of the thoroughfare of the pass. The master of the Harriet, having obstructed it, with a full knowledge of the danger of doing so, was guilty of such misconduct as to deprive the owners of the Harriet of any right of action against the owners of the Louisville.

The court admitted that if a ship be at anchor, with no sails set, in a proper place for anchoring, and another ship, under sail, occasions damage to her, the latter is liable. But the place where the Harriet was at anchor was an improper place, and her owners must abide the consequences of the conduct of the master.

The owners of the Harriet, being dissatisfied with this decision, carried the case up to the Supreme Court of the United States, and it was argued at the last term of this court in Washington. The judges were equally divided in opinion; and, of course, the judgment of the court in Louisiana was not reversed.

COMMON CARRIERS—TRANSPORTATION OF MERCHANDISE.

In the District Court, Philadelphia, November, 1843, an action was brought by the individuals composing the Union Transportation Company *vs.* Charles Field & Son, to recover freight for the transportation of a large portion of one thousand and twenty-eight bags of coffee from New York to Philadelphia, and the delivery of the same, or the major part thereof, to the defendants. It appears that the coffee was delivered to the transportation company in separate parcels, and at different times, by Sheldon & Brother, of New York; and that one parcel, consisting of twenty-five bags, was destroyed at the New York wharf, by the sinking of one of the company's barges. The defendants claimed damages for the loss of this coffee, which was admitted to be of amount sufficient to defeat the present action. But unliquidated damages cannot defeat an action unless they arise out of the transaction upon which the suit is founded. The plaintiffs, therefore, contended that each shipment of coffee was a separate transaction, and excluded the damages of the lost goods from being set off against their claim for freight; while, on the other hand, the defendants labored to prove that the contract to transport the whole one thousand and twenty-eight bags was entire; that the sending it in parcels was only for the sake of convenience, and that any loss on any parcel ought, therefore, to be deducted from the whole amount of freight claimed.

After the charge by Judge Jones, which sustained the points made by the defence, before reported, and after the jury had retired, the counsel for the plaintiffs withdrew the case, by suffering a non-suit.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1842.

We are indebted to the politeness of the Hon. Levi Woodbury, United States senator from New Hampshire, for a copy of the "Report from the Secretary of the Treasury, communicating the annual statement of Commerce and Navigation of the United States for the year ending September 30th, 1842." From this report, it appears that the exports during the commercial year ending September 30, 1842, amounted to $104,691,534, of which $92,969,996 were of domestic, and $11,721,538 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles, $71,467,634 were exported in American vessels, and $21,502,362 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, $8,425,389 were exported in American vessels, and $3,296,149 in foreign. The imports during the year have amounted to $100,162,087; of which there was imported in American vessels $88,724,280, and in foreign vessels $11,437,807. 1,510,111 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,536,451 tons cleared from the ports of the United States; 732,775 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 740,497 tons cleared during the same period.

The registered tonnage during the same year is stated at.....	975,358.74
The enrolled and licensed tonnage at.....	1,045,753.39
Fishing vessels at.....	71,278.51
Total tonnage,.....	2,092,390.64
Of registered and enrolled tonnage, amounting, as before stated, to.....	2,021,112.18
There were employed in the whale fishery.....	151,612.74

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States during the year ending on the 30th September, 1842, was as follows:—

Registered,.....	54,532.14
Enrolled,.....	74,551.50
Total,.....	129,083.64

In the Merchants' Magazine for November, 1843, (pp. 469, 470, and 471,) we gave, in advance of the appearance of the treasury report, the official statistical view of the imports from, and exports to, each foreign country; and also of the tonnage arriving at, and departing to, each foreign country during the year 1842. We now proceed to lay before our readers other condensed statements of our commerce and navigation, selected and compiled from the document before us, as follows:—

Domestic Exports of the United States.

Official summary statement of the value of the Exports, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, during the year commencing on the 1st day of October, 1841, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1842.

THE SEA.

Fisheries—			
Dried fish, or cod fisheries,.....	.....	$567,782	
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, shad, salmon, mackerel,).....	.....	162,324	
Whale and other fish oil,.....	.....	1,315,411	
Spermaceti oil,.....	.....	233,114	
Whalebone,.....	.....	225,382	
Spermaceti candles,.....	.....	318,997	
			$2,823,010

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

THE FOREST.			
Skins and furs,	.....	$598,487	
Ginseng,	.....	63,702	
Product of wood—			
Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber,	$2,203,537		
Other lumber,	253,931		
Masts and spars,	37,730		
Oak bark and other dye,	111,087		
All manufactures of wood,	623,718		
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, turpentine,	743,329		
Ashes, pot and pearl,	802,741		
		4,856,073	
AGRICULTURE.			$5,518,262
Product of animals—			
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle,	1,212,638		
Butter and cheese,	388,185		
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs,	2,629,403		
Horses and mules,	299,654		
Sheep,	38,892		
Vegetable food—		4,568,772	
Wheat,	916,616		
Flour,	7,375,356		
Indian corn,	345,150		
Indian meal,	617,817		
Rye meal,	124,396		
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse,	175,082		
Biscuit, or ship bread,	323,759		
Potatoes,	85,844		
Apples,	32,245		
Rice,	1,907,387		
		11,903,652	16,472,424
Tobacco,	.....	.....	9,540,755
Cotton,	.....	.....	47,593,464
All other agricultural products—			
Flax-seed,	.....	34,991	
Hops,	.....	36,547	
Brown sugar,	.....	8,890	
Indigo,	.....	1,042	
			81,470
MANUFACTURES.			
Soap, and tallow candles,	.....	485,128	
Leather, boots and shoes,	.....	168,925	
Household furniture,	.....	290,997	
Coaches, and other carriages,	.....	48,509	
Hats,	.....	65,882	
Saddlery,	.....	25,986	
Wax,	.....	103,626	
Spirits from grain,	.....	50,708	
Beer, ale, porter, and cider,	.....	54,674	
Snuff and tobacco,	.....	525,490	
Lead,	.....	523,428	
Linseed oil and spirits of turpentine,	.....	34,775	
Cordage,	.....	30,457	
Iron—pig, bar, and nails,	.....	120,454	
Castings,	.....	68,507	
All manufactures of,	.....	920,561	
Spirits from molasses,	.....	247,745	
Sugar, refined,	.....	291,499	
Chocolate,	.....	3,094	
Gunpowder,	.....	161,292	
Copper and brass,	.....	97,021	
Medicinal drugs,	.....	139,313	
			4,458,071

Cotton piece goods—			
Printed and colored,	$385,040		
White,	2,297,964		
Twist, yarn, and thread,	37,325		
All other manufactures of,	250,361		
		$2,970,690	
Flax and hemp—bags and all manufactures of,	.....	1,038	
Wearing apparel,	.....	53,219	
Combs and buttons,	.....	34,714	
Brushes,	.....	1,925	
Billiard-tables and apparatus,	.....	1,800	
Umbrellas and parasols,	.....	5,838	
Leather and morocco skins not sold per pound,	.....	22,502	
Printing-presses and type,	.....	19,611	
Fire-engines and apparatus,	.....	1,304	
Musical instruments,	.....	16,253	
Books and maps,	.....	44,846	
Paper and stationery,	.....	69,862	
Paints and varnish,	.....	27,370	
Vinegar,	.....	10,208	
Earthen and stoneware,	.....	7,618	
Manufactures of glass,	.....	36,748	
" tin,	.....	5,682	
" pewter and lead,	.....	16,789	
" marble and stone,	.....	18,921	
" gold and silver, and gold leaf,	.....	1,323	
Gold and silver coin,	.....	1,170,754	
Artificial flowers and jewelry,	.....	7,638	
Molasses,	.....	19,040	
Trunks,	.....	3,916	
Brick and lime,	.....	5,728	
Domestic salt,	.....	39,064	
			4,614,401
Articles not enumerated—			
Manufactured,	.....	508,976	
Other articles,	.....	1,359,163	
			1,868,139
			$92,969,996

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, 1842.

The following table exhibits a comparative view of the commerce of the United States with the principal nations of the world. It will be seen that nearly half our commerce is with England and her colonies, that the balance of trade was last year in our favor, and that the balance against us in Spain, Russia, America, and China is made up by England, France, Holland, and the Hanse Towns, and numerous other places where the trade is comparatively small:—

	Imports.	Exports.	Excess of Imp.	Excess of Exp.
G. Britain and British depend.,	$38,613,000	$42,500,000	.....	$3,900,000
France and her dependencies,	17,233,000	18,738,000	.....	1,500,000
Spain " "	13,450,000	6,300,000	$7,150,000	.....
Russia,	1,350,000	836,000	500,000	.....
America, other than U. States,	13,000,000	7,000,000	6,000,000	.....
China,	5,000,000	1,500,000	3,500,000	.....
Holland,	1,000,000	3,500,000	2,500,000	.....
Hanse Towns,	2,200,000	4,400,000	.....	4,500,000
Total,	$100,161,000	$104,691,000	.....	$4,500,000

Statement of the Commerce of each State and Territory, commencing on the 1st October, 1841, and ending on the 30th September, 1842.

States and Territories.	IMPORTS OF EACH STATE & TERRITORY.			EXPORTS OF EACH STATE AND TERRITORY.						
	VALUE OF IMPORTS.			VALUE OF EXPORTS.						
				Domestic Produce.			*Foreign Produce.*			Total of domestic and foreign produce.
	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	In Am. vessels.	In for. vessels.	Total.	In Am. v'sel's.	In for. vessels	Total.	
Maine,	$547,956	$58,908	$606,864	$995,743	$47,429	$1,043,172	$1,797	$5,554	$7,351	$1,050,523
N. Hampshire,	55,256	5,225	60,481	24,697	3,722	28,419	.....	128	128	28,547
Vermont,	209,868	.....	209,868	550,293	.....	550,293	7,216	.....	7,216	557,509
Massachusetts,	16,495,973	1,490,460	17,986,433	5,898,858	820,257	6,719,115	2,393,640	694,355	3,087,995	9,807,110
Rhode Island,	320,368	3,324	323,692	322,952	485	323,437	25,259	.....	25,259	348,696
Connecticut,	329,580	6,127	335,707	531,313	1,079	532,392	.....	.....	.....	532,392
New York,	51,523,055	6,352,549	57,875,604	16,580,810	4,158,476	20,739,286	4,768,292	2,069,200	6,837,492	27,576,778
New Jersey,	145	.....	145	64,931	.....	64,931	5,976	.....	5,976	70,907
Pennsylvania,	6,757,228	628,630	7,385,858	2,785,261	508,553	3,293,814	394,127	82,786	476,913	3,770,727
Delaware,	1,612	1,945	3,557	50,959	4,706	55,665	.....	.....	.....	55,665
Maryland,	3,998,365	418,713	4,417,078	3,536,501	1,099,006	4,635,507	233,017	36 242	269,259	4,904,766
Dist. Columbia,	23,934	5,122	29,056	320,961	177,859	498,820	1,934	921	2,855	501,675
Virginia,	278,536	38,169	316,705	3,301,417	443,810	3,745,227	5,159	.....	5,159	3,750,386
N. Carolina,	181,555	5,849	187,404	320,375	24,275	344,650	.....	.....	.....	344,650
S. Carolina,	1,042,424	317,041	1,359,465	5,097,933	2,410,466	7,508,399	6,573	10,751	17,324	7,525,723
Georgia,	230,525	111,239	341,764	2,661,624	1,637,527	4,299,151	130	976	1,106	4,300,257
Alabama,	238,170	125,701	363,871	5,937,570	4,028,105	9,965,675	.....	.....	.....	9,965,675
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,	6,179,027	1,854,563	8,033,590	21,608,320	5,819,102	27,427,422	582,267	394,460	976,727	28,404,149
Ohio,	12,179	872	13.051	591,504	308,282	899,786	.....	.....	.....	899,786
Kentucky,	17,306	.....	17,306	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	5,687	.....	5,687	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	79,982	802	80,784	262,229	.....	262,229	.....	.....	.....	262,229
Missouri,	31,137	.....	31,137	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,	164,412	12,568	176,980	23,383	9,223	32,606	2	776	778	33,384
Total,	$88,724,280	$11,437,807	$100,162,087	$71,467,634	$21,502,362	$92,969,996	$8,425,389	$3,296,149	$11,721,538	$104,691,534

TONNAGE ENTERED THE UNITED STATES.

Total American and Foreign vessels.

States and Territories.	Number.	Tons.	CREWS. Men.	Boys.
Maine,	1,021	100,277	4,881	170
New Hampshire,	95	9,859	388	27
Vermont,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts,	2,208	363,748	18,507	415
Rhode Island,	97	17,705	899	8
Connecticut,	135	25,040	1,338	35
New York,	4,827	1,024,301	55,877	1,981
New Jersey,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania,	467	94,661	4,088	384
Delaware,	11	5,342	244	.....
Maryland,	408	86,904	3,811	.....
District of Columbia,	35	6,400	296	6
Virginia,	131	24,230	1,129	1
North Carolina,	230	29,413	1,441	8
South Carolina,	272	64,167	2,718	255
Georgia,	112	40,066	1,580	.....
Alabama,	145	57,970	2,163	.....
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,	786	255,475	10,374	.....
Ohio,	305	23,901	1,181	.....
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	42	3,828	190	.....
Missouri,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,	157	9,599	966	.....
Total,	11,474	2,242,886	112,071	3,290

TONNAGE CLEARED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Total American and Foreign vessels.

States and Territories.	Number.	Tons.	CREWS. Men.	Boys.
Maine,	1,283	145,548	6,736	301
New Hampshire,	87	4,853	237	3
Vermont,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts,	1,996	299.139	16,816	117
Rhode Island,	109	19,993	1,156	27
Connecticut,	170	32,044	1,996	146
New York,	4,339	897,509	51,234	1,988
New Jersey,	10	2,301	92	.....
Pennsylvania,	426	78,920	3,668	284
Delaware,	17	5,209	255	2
Maryland,	394	82,707	3,890	.....
District of Columbia,	66	11,252	518	15
Virginia,	246	55,640	2,416	3
North Carolina,	309	40,716	2,013	1
South Carolina,	356	95,180	3,810	304
Georgia,	163	61,659	2,300	.....
Alabama,	210	89,342	3,289	.....
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,	862	317,778	12,358	.....
Ohio,	300	23,486	1,161	.....
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	65	6,354	303	.....
Missouri,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,	145	7,318	858	.....
Total,	11,553	2,276,948	115,106	3,191

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement exhibiting a condensed view of the tonnage of the several districts of the United States, on the 30th of September, 1842.

DISTRICTS.		Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage.	Tot. tonnage of each district.
		Tons & 95ths.	*Tons & 95ths.*	*Tons & 95ths.*
Passamaquoddy,	Maine,	2,352.65	6,310.42	8,863.12
Machias,	"	1,920.14	12,481.37	14,401.51
Frenchman's bay,	"	2,364.13	12,866.33	15,500.46
Penobscot,	"	5,857.14	19,250.84	25,108.03
Belfast,	"	8,366.45	24,809.66	33,176.16
Waldoborough,	"	12,245.07	43,946.44	56,191.51
Wiscasset,	"	4,112.37	8,876.87	12,989.29
Bath,	"	33,782.32	14,857.38	48,639.70
Portland,	"	39,142.71	15,389.07	54,531.78
Saco,	"	1,220.17	2,133.26	3,353.43
Kennebunk,	"	5,516.87	2,272.33	7,789.25
York,	"	.....	885.33	885.33
Portsmouth,	New Hampshire,	15,233.67	8,688.11	23,921.78
Newburyport,	Massachusetts,	15,648.19	5,392.84	21,041.08
Ipswich,	"	.....	2,273.03	2,273.03
Gloucester,	"	2,985.23	13,029.52	16,014.75
Salem,	"	21,879.54	12,432.37	34,311.91
Marblehead,	"	2,657.73	6,156.85	8,814.63
Boston,	"	157,116.70	36,385.48	193,502.23
Plymouth,	"	19,342.82	9,252.58	28,595.45
Fall River,	"	3,014.31	5,701.22	8,715.53
New Bedford,	"	76,169.54	22,351.22	98,520.76
Barnstable,	"	5,253.49	37,774.09	43,027.58
Edgartown,	"	5,936.56	2,092.52	8,029.13
Nantuckot,	"	24,729.67	7,318.58	32,048.30
Providence,	Rhode Island,	14,843.11	5,236.32	20,089.43
Bristol,	"	9,043.58	4,457.80	13,501.43
Newport,	"	6,721.47	6,930.59	13,652.11
Middletown,	Connecticut,	953.53	9,722.94	10,676.52
New London,	"	24,379.48	11,394.11	35,773.59
Stonington,	"	97.47	1,154.21	1,251.68
New Haven,	"	4,676.66	6,287.47	10,964.18
Fairfield,	"	.....	9,083.13	9,083.13
Vermont,	Vermont,	.....	4,343.30	4,343.30
Champlain,	New York,	.....	2,280.15	2,280.15
Sackett's Harbor,	"	.....	2,400.89	2,400.89
Oswego,	"	.....	9,670.38	9,670.38
Niagara,	"	.....	112.08	112.08
Genesee,	"	.....	556.28	556.28
Oswegatchie,	"	.....	921.92	921.92
Buffalo creek,	"	.....	17,198.26	17,198.26
Sag Harbor,	"	15,312.63	5,862.02	21,174.65
New York,	"	226,072.61	233,401.35	459,474.01
Perth Amboy,	New Jersey,	.....	19,227.37	19,227.37
Bridgetown,	"	227.30	9,239.30	9,466.60
Burlington,	"	.....	3,994.28	3,994.28
Camden,	"	.....	4,951.84	4,951.84
Newark,	"	169.23	8,320.59	8,489.82
Little Egg Harbor,	"	.....	5,463.86	5,463.86
Great Egg Harbor,	"	.....	9,148.05	9,148.05
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,	42,891.84	57,749.83	100,641.72
Presqu' isle,	"	.....	2,819.84	2,819.84
Pittsburgh,	"	.....	10,107.13	10,107.13
Wilmington,	Delaware,	2,149.62	4,918.14	7,067.76
Newcastle,	"	.....	3,327.72	3,327.72
Baltimore,	Maryland,	41,455.51	33,643.48	75,099.04

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

DISTRICTS.		Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage.	Tot. tonnage of each district.
		Tons & 95ths.	*Tons & 95ths.*	*Tons & 95ths.*
Oxford,	Maryland,	.....	9,443.70	9,443.70
Vienna,	"	480.07	11,534.01	12,014.08
Snow Hill,	"	.....	6,525.35	6,525.35
St. Marys,	"	.....	1,366.62	1,366.62
Annapolis,	"	.....	2,406.67	2,406.67
Georgetown,	District of Columbia,	1,881.56	5,689.22	7,570.78
Alexandria,	"	6,495.60	3,644.36	10,140.01
Norfolk,	Virginia,	8,252.67	8,978.05	17,230.72
Petersburg,	"	1,995.18	1,108.34	3,102.52
Richmond,	"	3,929.74	3,081.38	7,011.17
Yorktown,	"	.....	3,803.71	3,803.71
East River,	"	.....	2,133.12	2,133.12
Rappahannock,	"	1,252.27	4,429.64	5,681.91
Folly Landing,	"	.....	2,917.88	2,917.88
Yeocomico,	"	.....	2,794.86	2,794.86
Cherrystone,	"	80.04	1,566.56	1,646.60
Wheeling,	"	.....	1,212.73	1,212.73
Wilmington,	North Carolina,	7,946.36	2,246.47	10,192.83
Newbern,	"	2,454.75	1,745.12	4,199.87
Washington,	"	751.55	2,166.57	2,918.17
Edenton,	"	189.50	1,007.87	1,197.42
Camden,	"	999.12	7,727.41	8,726.53
Beaufort,	"	.....	909.29	909.29
Plymouth,	"	372.93	922.68	1,295.66
Ocracoke,	"	1,282.19	969.16	2,242.35
Charleston,	South Carolina,	12,573.28	9,147.48	21,720.76
Georgetown,	"	1,077.02	333.93	1,411.00
Beaufort,	"	.....	337.33	337.33
Savannah,	Georgia,	7,803.02	5,990.79	13,793.81
Sunbury,	"	.....	.....	.....
Brunswick,	"	861.80	828.89	1,690.74
Hardwick,	"	.....	.....	.....
St. Marys,	"	782.61	268.69	1,051.35
Cuyahoga,	Ohio,	.....	8,671.63	8,671.63
Sandusky,	"	.....	2,860.94	2,860.94
Cincinnati,	"	.....	12,025.01	12,025.01
Miami,	"	.....	1,272.69	1,272.69
Nashville,	Tennessee,	.....	3,810.82	3,810.82
Louisville,	Kentucky,	.....	4,618.64	4,618.64
St. Louis,	Missouri,	.....	14,726.80	14,726.80
Detroit,	Michigan,	.....	11,735.80	11,735.80
Michilimackinac,	"	.....	587.52	587.52
Mobile,	Alabama,	2,542.60	10,034.67	14,577.32
Pearl river,	Mississippi,	.....	901.16	901.16
New Orleans,	Louisiana,	48,600.35	95,023.79	143,624.29
Teche,	"	.....	504.42	504.42
Pensacola,	Florida,	1,328.39	777.93	2,106.37
St. Augustine,	"	273.07	140.06	413.13
Apalachicola,	"	1,433.58	2,237.80	3,671.43
St. Marks,	"	.....	.....	.....
Key West,	"	1,596.53	500.56	2,097.14
Total,		975,358.74	1,117,031.90	2,092,390.69

VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES.

Statement of the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each State and Territory of the United States, for the year ending on the 30th September, 1842.

States.	CLASS OF VESSELS. Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops and canal b'ts.	Steam-boats.	Total.	TOT. TONNAGE. Tons and 95ths.
Maine,.....	57	50	55	1	1	164	38,040.75
New Hampshire,.	4	1	...	...	...	5	1,695.53
Massachusetts, ..	32	14	21	4	1	72	18,632.18
Rhode Island,....	8	...	...	3	...	11	2,515.50
Connecticut, ...	3	4	7	7	1	22	3,352.70
New York,.....	6	5	17	134	22	184	20,241.18
New Jersey,.....	...	...	16	26	5	47	3,115.72
Pennsylvania,....	1	4	6	158	43	212	13,666.17
Delaware,.....	1	...	4	4	...	9	712.59
Maryland,.....	3	6	99	...	1	109	7,936.92
Dist. of Columbia,	...	...	1	48	...	49	950.76
Virginia,.....	1	...	8	3	...	12	889.40
North Carolina,..	...	...	14	4	1	19	1,185.22
South Carolina,..	...	...	5	1	1	7	481.78
Georgia,.....	...	...	...	...	1	1	123.65
Ohio,.....	...	7	8	2	32	49	7,904.20
Tennessee,.....	...	...	...	...	2	2	321.10
Kentucky,.....	...	...	...	...	22	22	5,607.67
Missouri,.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....
Alabama, ...	...	...	...	4	1	5	281.53
Louisiana,.....	...	...	6	5	3	14	1,043.92
Michigan,.....	...	...	6	...	...	6	384.62
Florida,.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....
Total,.....	116	91	273	404	137	1,021	129,083.64

COFFEE TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1821 TO 1842.

The secretary of the treasury, says Lyford, in his excellent Price Current, is at this time engaged in collecting materials for the purpose of aiding him in forming an opinion in reference to the *policy* of recommending the imposition of a duty on coffee and tea, hereafter to be imported into the United States. The materials, as regards the imports, consumption, and value, are already in his possession, but they are not always easy of access. The press, if it is so disposed, can often throw much light upon such subjects; and when it can, we think it should do so, and thereby, at the same time, render a service to a portion, at least, of its readers. On the subject of coffee, we have an article before us in "Hazard's Statistical Register," which we subjoin. The statistics of the Register, however, extend no further than to 1840; the subsequent years, 1841 and 1842, we have prepared from the secretary's letter on commerce and navigation, and those years are attached:—

"In reply to an inquiry of a member of Congress relative to the comparative prices of coffee for a series of years prior to, and since, the act of 1833, abolishing the duties, we have prepared the following table—taking the annual reports of the secretary of the treasury as the basis of our calculations. We know of no other mode of arriving at the facts, although we are aware, from the circumstances of the different qualities of coffee being all blended together, the average thus obtained will not probably correspond with the actual price of any particular quality, taken separately. But for the general purpose of the present inquiry, this mode of arriving at the desired information may be a sufficiently close approximation to the truth. The value and prices of the imports being obtained from the invoices, must show correctly the cost at the place of purchase. The value of the exports is, we presume, a general average of the prices throughout the year,

as obtained at the treasury department, and we learn from the custom-house, is the value of the article at the "short price;" that is, with the drawback taken off. By adding, therefore, five cents to the prices of exports from 1821 to 1833, the average price per pound, based on the valuation by the secretary, may be ascertained."

Imports, Exports, and Value of Coffee.

Statement showing the Imports, Exports, and Value of Coffee into and from the United States, with the quantity left for Consumption or Exportation, for each year from 1821 *to* 1842, *ending* 30*th September, and the average price.*

Years.	Imports.	Value.	Price of Imports.	Consumption or exportation.	Value of Exports.	Aver. price of exports.	Left for consumption or exportat'n.
	Lbs.	*Dollars.*		*Lbs.*	*Dollars.*		*Lbs.*
1821,...	21,273,659	4,489,970	21 1-10	9,387,596	2,087,479	22 1-4	11,886,063
1822,...	25,782,390	5,552,649	21 5-10	7,267,119	1,653,607	22 3-4	18,515,271
1823,...	37,337,732	7,098,119	19 1-10	20,900,687	4,262,699	20 4-10	16,437,045
1824,...	39,224,251	5,437,029	13 1-10	19,427,227	2,923,079	15	19,797,024
1825,...	45,190,630	5,250,828	11 6-10	24,512,568	3,254,936	13 1-4	20,678,062
1826,...	37,319,497	4,159,558	11 5-10	11,584,713	1,449,022	12 1-2	25,734,784
1827,...	50,051,986	4.464,391	8 9-10	21,697,789	2,324,784	10 3-4	28,354,197
1828,...	55,194,697	5,192,338	9 5-10	16,037,964	1,497,097	9 1-3	39,156,733
1829,...	51,133,538	4,588,585	9	18,083,843	1,536,565	9 1-2	33,049,695
1830,...	51,488,248	4,227,021	8 2-10	13,124,561	1,046,542	8	38,363,687
1831,..	81,757,386	6,317,666	7 7-10	6,056,629	521,527	8 6-10	75,700,757
1832,...	91,722,329	9,099,464	10	55,251,158	6,583,344	11 9-10	36,471,171
1833,*.	99,955,020	10,567,299	10 6-10	24,897,114	3,041,689	12 1-4	75,057,906
1834,...	80,153,366	8,762,657	10 9-10	35,606,861	4,288,720	12	44,346,505
1835,...	103,199,577	10,715,466	10 4-10	11,446,775	1,333,777	11 2-3	91,752,802
1836,...	93,790,507	9,653,053	10 3-10	16,143,207	1,985,176	12 1-4	77,647,300
1837,...	88,140,403	8,657,760	9 8-10	12,096,332	1,322,254	10 1-10	76,044,071
1838,...	88,139,720	7,640,217	8 6-10	5,267,087	502,287	9 4-10	82,871,633
1839,...	106,696,992	9,744,103	9 1-10	6,824,475	737,418	10 3-4	99,872,517
1840,...	94,996,095	8,546,222	9	8,698,334	930,399	10 6-10	86,297,761
1841,...	114,984,783	10,444,882	9	5,784,536	589,609	10 2-4	109,200,247
1842,...	112,865,927	8,938,638	8	5,381,068	483,326	9	107,484,459

* Imported in 1833—	*Lbs.*	*Dollars.*
Previous to 4th March,....	33,326,120	3.570,248
After " "	66,628,900	6,997,051
Total,.....	99,955,020	10,567,299

Exports.	*Lbs.*	*Dollars.*
Specific duties,.....	10,200,962	1,235,106
Free of duty,.....	14,696,152	1,806,583
Total,.....	24,897,114	3,041,689

Remarks.

The importations from 1826 to 1832, both inclusive, were.....lbs. 418,667,681
" " 1834 to 1840, " " 655,116,660

Being an increase of..... 236,448,979

in the seven years succeeding 1833 over those prior to that year.

The exportations from 1826 to 1832 were.....lbs. 141,836,657
" " 1834 to 1840 " 96,283,071

Being a decrease of..... 45,553,586

in the seven years succeeding 1833, as compared with the seven preceding it.

The consumption from 1826 to 1832 was.....lbs. 276,831,024
" " 1834 to 1840 " 558,833,589

Being an increase of..... 282,002,565

in the consumption of the last seven years over the former.

The average price of the importations from 1826 to 1832 was 9 3-10 cents per pound, and from 1834 to 1840 was 9 7-10, being a difference of 4-10ths of a cent per pound against the latter seven years.

The average price of exportations from 1826 to 1832 was 10 5-10 cents, and from 1834 to 1840 was 11 5-10, being 1 cent per pound against the latter seven years.

It would appear from these statements that, since 1833, the amount of coffee imported has increased 56 47-100 per cent, while that exported has diminished 32 12-100 per cent; that the amount consumed has increased 101 40-100 per cent; and that the cost of the article in the places of growth has advanced, as has also the price in the United States. The great increase of consumption, therefore, would seem to have been induced by some other cause than the removal of the duties, probably the increase of population; and perhaps the facilities of transportation enables it to reach the consumer in the interior at a diminished expense, while the demand has sustained the price in the market.

The increase of population between 1830 and 1840 has been about 32 9-10 per cent.

The amount consumed from 1826 to 1832 would furnish to each individual in the United States, according to the census of 1830, 3 7-10 pounds per annum; and the quantity consumed from 1834 to 1840, according to the population of 1840, would allow to each individual 4 7-10 pounds, being an increase in the latter period of 1 pound to each, per annum. This is independently, in both cases, of the consumption of 1833, which year has been excluded from all the preceding calculations.

Owing to the high prices of tea, it is probable the consumption of coffee will be further extended during the present year.

AMERICAN AND BRITISH SHIPPING.

The annexed tables, copied from a London paper, are of interest, as showing the relative increase of American and British shipping employed in the trade between this country and the United Kingdom:—

Number of American Ships, and their Tonnage, entered from the United States in the ports of the United Kingdom during the past twelve years, ending the fifth day of January, 1843.

	ENTERED.		CLEARED.			ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
Years.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Years.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1832,.....	639	229,869	651	231,280	1838,.....	602	275,813	624	284,808
1833,.....	432	167,359	471	176,771	1839,.....	784	357,467	830	373,810
1834,.....	443	181,874	447	180,268	1840,.....	558	282,005	580	292,334
1835,.....	492	204,529	546	220,913	1841,.....	867	426,867	839	409,900
1836,.....	542	236,393	601	251,021	1842,.....	524	294,170	580	313,390
1837,.....	524	226,483	579	255,046	1843,.....	554	319,524	616	340,832

Number of British Ships cleared and entered for the United States in same period.

	CLEARED.		ENTERED.			ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
Years.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Years.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1832,.....	358	114,200	289	91,785	1838,.....	260	110,475	209	81,023
1833,.....	458	147,902	284	94,203	1839,.....	239	109,951	194	83,203
1834,.....	475	158,487	265	89,923	1840,.....	298	134,722	195	92,482
1835,.....	387	133,754	281	94,658	1841,.....	360	180,041	275	138,201
1836,.....	334	119,903	227	82,453	1842,.....	318	159,597	267	121,777
1837,.....	339	128,856	226	86,383	1843,.....	355	195,745	281	152,833

BRAZILIAN COTTON IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

The quantity of cotton imported into Great Britain from Brazil, appears to be decreasing annually. An English paper copies the following amounts of the quantities imported and entered for home consumption in each of the last ten years, from a recent parliamentary return:—

Years.	Imported.	Home cons'n.	Years.	Imported.	Home cons'n.
1833,..... lbs.	28,463,821	27,253,980	1838,..... lbs.	24,464,505	24,727,312
1834,.....	19,291,396	20,028,836	1839,.....	16,971,979	17,089,859
1835,.....	24,986,409	24,757,678	1840,.....	14,779,171	13,952,644
1836,.....	27,501,272	26,905,704	1841,.....	16,671,348	14,095,988
1837,.....	20,940,145	20,822,509	1842,.....	15,222,828	13,554,546

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TARIFF OF COLONIAL DUTIES,

Leviable upon Imports into British Guiana from 18th August, 1843, to 30th June, 1844, furnished for publication in the Merchants' Magazine by Benjamin and Duff, of Demerara.

Wheat flour, per barrel, 196 lbs., English,	$1 50
Rye flour, " " "	0 50
Corn and pulse, per bushel, "	0 15
Corn meal, per 100 lbs., "	0 50
Rice, " "	0 75
Oats, per bushel,	0 10
Bread, as pilot, navy biscuit, and crackers, and all other kinds, per 100 lbs. English,	0 50
Dry fish, per quintal,	0 56
Salmon, per barrel, 200 lbs. English,	2 00
Pickled mackerel, per barrel, 200 lbs. English,	1 00
Pickled fish of all other sorts, per barrel, 200 lbs. English,	0 75
Barrels of beef and pork, 200 lbs. English,	2 00
Candles, tallow, per lb. English,	0 01
Candles, spermaceti, wax, or composition, per lb. English,	0 04
Soap, per lb. English,	0 01
Butter, " "	0 01
Lard, " "	0 01
Tobacco, in packages not less than 800 lbs., per 100 lbs. English,	10 00
Tobacco, in packages less than 800 lbs., manufactured or otherwise, per 100 lbs. English,	15 00
Cigars, per 1000,	2 00
Tea, per lb., English,	0 25
Pepper, sago, tapioca, per 100 lbs., English,	5 00
Cocoa, per 100 lbs. English,	5 00
Chocolate, per 100 lbs. English,	6 00
Sugar, refined, per cwt.,	4 00
Pitch, tar, and rosin, per barrel,	0 50
Crude turpentine, per barrel,	0 50
Spirits turpentine, per gallon,	0 15
Spermaceti oil, per gallon,	0 20
Other descriptions of oils, per gallon,	0 10
White pine lumber, per 1000 feet, board measure,	2 00
Pitch pine lumber, per 1000 feet, board measure,	3 00
Red oak staves, per 1000,	1 50
White oak staves and heading, per 1000,	2 00
Clapboards, per 1000,	1 50
Shingles of all kinds, per 1000,	0 50
House frames, white pine, per running foot, per story,	0 10
" " pitch pine,	0 20
Horses, per head,	7 00
Mules, "	5 00
Potatoes, per bushel of 64 lbs. English,	0 08
Bottled wine of all descriptions, per dozen,	1 00
Wine in wood, of all kinds, per pipe of 110 gallons,	33 00
Spirituous liquors, liqueurs, and cordials, per gallon,	0 67
Cattle (neat),	4 00
Plantains, per bunch,	0 10
Malt liquor in wood, per hhd.,	1 50
Malt liquor, per dozen,	0 08
Hams, bacon, and all other dried or smoked meats, and smoked fish, per 100 lbs. English,	1 50
Cheese, per lb.,	0 ½
Pickled tongues, at the rate of, per 100 lbs.,	1 50

And after those rates for every greater or less quantity of such goods respectively.

Coin, bullion, fruit and vegetables, ice, fresh fish and meats, live and dead stock, except horses, mules, and cattle, are exempt from any colonial duty.

The above specific duties are leviable upon all imports, besides an *ad valorem* duty of one per cent upon all goods the production of the United Kingdom, and two and a half per cent upon all foreign goods, whether paying specific duty or not.

REGULATIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT OF HAYTI.

INCREASE OF TONNAGE DUTIES ON FOREIGN VESSELS—EXPORT DUTIES REDUCED AT HAYTI.

The following laws bearing upon our commerce, recently enacted by the Government of Hayti, to take effect from and after the 11th day of September, 1843, were received from the United States Commercial Agent at Cape Haytien, at the Department of State, Washington, October 7th, 1843, and are published officially in the Madisonian, as follows:

The tonnage duty heretofore exacted on foreign vessels, at one dollar Spanish per ton, is increased to two dollars Spanish per ton, (consequently American vessels pay two dollars and twenty cents per ton.)

All foreign vessels going from one port to another, in this Island, will pay for each port visited, an additional duty of one hundred dollars, Haytien currency, on vessels under one hundred and fifty tons.

Vessels from one hundred and fifty to two hundred tons, pay one hundred and fifty dollars.

Vessels of two hundred tons and upwards, pay two hundred Haytien dollars.

The duties on wharfage, and weighage on merchandise *imported*, are increased to double their former rates.

The "Territorial" duty on exports is still in force; but the duty of exportation is reduced, which reduces the export duty on coffee from twenty dollars, Haytien currency, per one thousand pounds, to twelve dollars.

Cocoa from ten dollars to four per one thousand pounds.

Tobacco, in leaf, from fifteen dollars per one thousand pounds to five dollars. Logwood from seven dollars per one thousand pounds to two dollars.

Mahogany from twenty-two dollars to twelve dollars per thousand feet. Hides, of all kinds, are free of export duty.

The wharfage and the weighing and measuring are to be added to the foregoing quantities as follows:—On coffee, one dollar, Haytien currency. Cocoa, one dollar. Tobacco, one dollar. Logwood, one dollar. Mahogany, one dollar. Hides are charged one cent, Haytien, each.

The present value of a Haytien dollar is two-fifths (2-5ths) of a Spanish or American silver dollar, or sixty per cent. below their par.

INSPECTION OF PRODUCE IN NEW YORK.

The following act, passed April 18, 1843, amendatory of the Inspection laws of the State of New York, went into operation, according to the provision of the third section, on the first of December, 1843:—

Sec. 1. The provisions of title two, chapter seventeen, part first of the Revised Statutes, entitled "Of the Inspection of Provisions, Produce, and Merchandise," and all other statutes in relation thereto, except salt manufactured in this state, so far as the same or any of them prohibit the exportation or the buying and selling of flour and meal, beef and pork, pot and pearl ashes, fish or liver oil, lumber, staves and heading, flax seed, sole leather, hops, distilled spirits, leaf tobacco, wood, timber, bark, lime, green hides and skins, without a compliance therewith, unless by the consent or at the request of the owner, or some person interested therein, are hereby repealed.

Sec. 2. The provisions of the second, third, and fourth articles of title three, chapter seventeen, part first of the Revised Statutes, and of all other statutes so far as the same require grain and stone to be measured, or any article of merchandise to be weighed, against the consent or without the consent of the owner, or some person interested therein, are hereby repealed.

Sec. 3. This act shall not take effect until the first of December, 1843.

DIRECTIONS FOR PREPARING BEEF, ETC., FOR THE ENGLISH MARKET.

Beef.—Kill fat cattle only; all parts are used but the head, feet, and legs, to be cut, as nearly as possible, into pieces of eight pounds each.

Pack away in store casks, with dry salt well rubbed in, the cask to be filled up with pickle, sufficient saltpetre being added to give a bright color and proper consistency. In a day or two, or as soon as the blood is sufficiently purged out, the beef is to be removed to fresh pickle, where it remains until packed for exportation.

All pickle to be made strong enough to float an egg, and the scum to be taken off after settling. *Observe*—Saltpetre must not be used in any pickle after the first.

To be packed in barrels containing twenty-five pieces of two hundred pounds, or tierces containing thirty-eight pieces of three hundred and four pounds, perfectly water-tight, with two iron hoops at each end, and made just to fit.

It is important that when the packages are opened, the beef should present a sightly appearance to dealers; the edges of the pieces to be trimmed and laid in smoothly. Between each layer some fine salt is to be used, and over the top of the whole an inch or two of very coarse Turk's Island or St. Ubes should be placed. Pack dry, and after heading, pour through the bunghole three or four gallons of fresh pickle.

Pork.—In curing, the same process is to be observed as for beef. It must be cut into four pound pieces, and all parts used except the head, feet, and legs to the knee joints. To be packed for exportation in barrels of fifty pieces, or two hundred pounds.

Avoid, in all cases, government inspection as a legalized robbery. Each packer must brand his own name conspicuously on the head of his casks, with the number of pieces, and description of beef or pork. A favorite brand will often sell for five to ten shillings per tierce more than one unknown to the English purchaser.

Lard.—Really fine lard, for culinary purposes, should be packed in neat white kegs of about forty pounds each; it should be poured in, and allowed to cool before heading, a piece of white paper to be laid on to prevent its adhering to the top when opened; the kegs, in all cases, to be full.

So much care is not required in barrel lard, which is chiefly used for chandlery purposes, or machinery; but if poured in before heading, there would be a greater certainty of the packages being full.

LAW OF VESSELS FOR FOREIGN PORTS.

The Journal of Commerce says that the collector of the port of New York requires a strict adherence to the law requiring that the manifests of vessels, bound to foreign places, shall exhibit a full account of all the articles shipped. Captains of vessels may sometimes, in the hurry of clearing, find this arrangement inconvenient, but it is imperatively demanded by the laws. We copy, for general information, the substance of part of the 93d section of the act of March 2, 1799:—

"The master of a vessel bound to a foreign port, shall deliver to the collector a manifest of all the cargo and the value thereof, by him subscribed, and shall swear to the truth thereof; and if any vessel shall depart on her voyage without delivering such manifest, the master shall forfeit and pay the sum of five hundred dollars for every such offence."

A subsequent act, February 10, 1820, sec. xi., requires that before the collector grants a clearance, the shippers of the cargo shall deliver manifests of the parts thereof shipped by them respectively, specifying the kinds, quantities, and values of the articles shipped.

The consequence is, that, if a vessel departs without furnishing a manifest and obtaining a clearance, the master is liable to a penalty; and he cannot obtain a clearance until the shippers of the several parts of his cargo have delivered manifests thereof. If, then, the vessel shall be detained by the omission of the shippers to furnish the required documents, they will be liable to the master or owners for damages.

STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

PROGRAMME OF THE FRENCH STEAMSHIPS.

The starting of the French transatlantic steamships, in May, 1844, will form a new era in steam navigation. The following appears to be the programme; and the first great line, we have reason for believing, is to start in May, from Havre to New York:—

First great line—from Havre to New York. Four steamships are to be placed on this line; the departures are to take place once a fortnight. Fifteen days are allowed for each passage, and ten days at New York—in all, forty days. Twenty days are to be allowed to each vessel at Cherbourg, between every voyage, to rest the crew, and repair the vessel and engines.

Second great line—from Bordeaux to Martinique. Three steamers are to be placed on this line; the departures are to take place once a month. Two days are allowed for the passage from Bordeaux to Corunna, and ten hours' stay there; five days twelve hours for the passage from Corunna to the Azores, and one day's stay there; twelve days sixteen hours for the passage from the Azores to Martinique, the steamers to remain ten days at Martinique. Twenty days are allowed for the return passage from Martinique to Bordeaux—in all, forty days' sailing, and eleven days and a half stoppages. Thirty-seven days are allowed between every voyage, at Rochefort or Bordeaux, for repairs and stoppages.

Third great line—from Marseilles to Martinique. Three steamers are to be placed on this line; the departures are to take place once a month. From Marseilles to Barcelona, one day, and four hours' stay; from Barcelona to Cadiz, three days, and twenty-four hours' stay; from Cadiz to Madeira, three days, and twenty-four hours' stay; from Madeira to Martinique, fourteen days. The steamer is to remain ten days at Martinique. Twenty-one days are allowed for the return voyage from Martinique to Marseilles—in all, forty-two days' sailing, and fourteen and a half days' stoppages. Thirty-three days are to be allowed at Toulon or Marseilles, between every voyage, for repairs and repose.

Fourth great line—from St. Nazaire to Rio Janeiro. Four steamers are to be placed on this line; the departures are to take place once a month. From St. Nazaire to Lisbon, three days and a half, twenty-four hours' stay; from Lisbon to Goree, eight days, three days' stay; from Goree to Pernambuco, eight days sixteen hours, four days' stay; from Pernambuco to Bahia, one day twenty-two hours, four hours' stay; from Bahia to Rio Janeiro, three days nineteen hours. The steamer is to remain eleven days fourteen hours at Rio Janeiro. Twenty-five days twenty-one hours are allowed for the return voyage from Rio Janeiro to St. Nazaire. Forty-eight days are allowed between every voyage, at St. Nazaire or L'Orient, for rest and repairs.

Second secondary line—from Havana to Vera Cruz. One steamer is to be placed on this line; the departures to take place once a month. From Havana to Vera Cruz, three days eighteen hours, and twenty-four hours' stay; from Vera Cruz to Tampico, one day, and four hours' stay; from Tampico to Galveston, two days, and four hours' stay; from Galveston to New Orleans, one day six hours, and twelve hours' stay; from New Orleans to Havana, two days fourteen hours—in all, ten days fourteen hours' sailing, and one day twenty hours' stoppages.*

Third secondary line—from Martinique to the ports of the Spanish main. One steamer

* The first secondary line—from Martinique to Havana—is omitted by the Journal des Debats, from which we quote. There are to be three steamers placed on it; the departures are to take place once a fortnight. Seventeen days are allowed at Martinique, for rest and repairs.

is to be placed on this line; the departures are to be monthly. From Martinique to Chagres, six days, and twelve hours' stay; from Chagres to Carthagena, one day twelve hours, and four hours' stay; from Carthagena to Santa Martha, twelve hours, and four hours' stay; from Santa Martha to La Guayra, two days twelve hours, and twelve hours' stay; from La Guayra to Martinique, two days sixteen hours—in all, thirteen days four hours' sailing, and one day eight hours of stoppages.

Fourth secondary line—from Rio Janeiro to the ports on La Plata. One steamer is to be placed on this line; the departures are to be monthly. From Rio Janeiro to Montevideo, five days six hours, and five hours' stay; from Montevideo to Buenos Ayres, thirteen hours, and three days' stay; from Buenos Ayres to Rio Janeiro, six days—in all, fifteen days.

FARES ON THE WESTERN RAILROAD.

BETWEEN BOSTON AND ALBANY.

The following tables, published in the Boston Morning Post, show the results of high and low fares upon the Western railroad, up to September 28. The change of rate on through-passengers was made April 12. On way-fares, the old rates are still charged, as the Worcester road refuses to reduce from $1 25 for way, and $1 for through. All the reduction on through-passengers, it should be remembered, falls upon the Western road, as the Worcester road takes the same amount as before. As follows:—

The "through-freight" from Boston to Albany, in 1843, to September 30, amounts to 3,900 tons. In the same time, in 1843, but 1,441 tons were forwarded to Albany. Up to May 1st, the amount for 1843 was 614 against 521 tons last year. From May 1st to September 20, the amount this year was 3,268 tons; and in the same time last year, but 1,083—showing an increase of 300 per cent since the reduction took effect, with a very slight increase before.

The passengers through, for 1842 and 1843, show an equally large increase since the reduction to $4, as will be seen by the following table of comparison:—

	1842.		1843.	
	1st class.	2d class.	1st class.	2d class.
January,	1,074	27	448½	88
February,	551½	43	362½	51½
March,	723	54½	438½	98
April,	874½	131	864	384
	3,223	255½	2,113½	621½
May,	1,239	243½	1,802	857½
June,	1,672½	194	2,844½	1,017
July,	1,975	237	2,686	620
August,	2,625	322	3,923	693
To September 23d,	2,060	390	2,848	806½
	9,661½	1,386½	14,103½	3,944

Here, then, we have a *decrease*, before the reduction, of one-third on the first class, and an *increase* of nearly three-fold on the second class, and an increase of 40 per cent on the first, and three-fold on the second class, since the reduction. The way-passengers to May 1st, were 46,306½ in the first, and 5,526 in the second class, for 1842; and in the same time, in 1843, 36,898 in the first, and 5,819½ in the second class. In May and June, the totals were 24,730 and 3,762½ for 1842, and 24,417 and 6,624 for 1843. The way-passengers have, it will be seen, been better since than before the reduction.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

FRENCH EXCISE.

The excise, as it may be imagined, is one of the most expensive parts of the administration. The central bureaus are composed of a general director, with 20,000 francs a year; three sub-directors, at 12,000 francs; twenty-eight chiefs and sub-chiefs, receiving from 4,000 to 7,000 francs a year; and one hundred and seventy clerks and subordinate *employés*. Total, two hundred and two officials; whose emoluments amount altogether to 600,000 francs a year, with about 150,000 francs for extra expenses. There is a principal director in the chief town of every department, and a director in the principal town of every arrondissement. The three hundred and sixty directors, whose united salaries amount to 1,700,000 francs, employ, on an average, five clerks in their offices; which makes one thousand eight hundred *employés*, who cost about 1,100,000 francs—all this for the administration service only. The active service is performed, under the inspection of head controllers, by mounted and moveable controllers, unmounted and sedentary controllers, by mounted and unmounted principal and secondary excisemen, mounted and unmounted resident and moveable collectors, and by the regular host of agents. The number of the controllers, divided into six classes, according to their different offices, amounts to about seven hundred; and the amount of their salaries is 1,620,000 francs a year. The mounted and unmounted collectors, one thousand four hundred and fifty in number, cost 3,100,000 francs. Then follow one thousand three hundred mounted excisemen, who receive 2,500,000 francs; and three thousand unmounted excisemen, whose salaries amount to 3,400,000 francs; and about two thousand subordinate *employés*, receiving altogether 1,200,000 francs. The total number of the *employés* of the excise is, then, ten thousand eight hundred; who receive, in salaries, 15,220,000 francs. Under the head of indirect taxes, is comprised the collection of tolls on bridges, canals, and rivers, which employ only one hundred and twenty controllers and two hundred and ten collectors. Amount of salaries, 480,000 francs.

FRENCH GUNPOWDER ADMINISTRATION.

The direction of the manufacture and sale of gunpowder has a central administration, composed of about forty officials, the salaries of whom amount to 130,000 francs; and two hundred and sixty *employés* of all grades, receiving about 300,000 francs; besides about one thousand two hundred licensed gunpowder *debitants*, appointed by the government, and who altogether receive 1,400,000 francs. Besides their salaries, the *employés* of all the branches of the excise receive a per centage on the receipts, which amounts to 10 per cent on their emoluments; so that the twelve thousand six hundred officials above enumerated cost the country almost 18,000,000 francs.

RAISINS OR GRAPES.

Raisins are grapes allowed to ripen and dry upon the vine. The best come from the south of Europe. Fine raisins, without stones, are imported from Smyrna, Damascus, and Egypt. Sweet fleshy grapes are selected for maturing into raisins. The branches are pruned, and the vine is stripped of its leaves, when the fruit has become ripe, the sun then beaming full perfects saccharification, and expels the superfluous water. The raisins are plucked, cleansed, and dipped for a few seconds in a boiling ley of wood ashes and quick-lime. The wrinkled fruit is drained, dried and exposed to the sun upon hurdles of basket work, during fourteen or fifteen days.

MANUFACTURES OF THE SOUTH AND WEST.

It is probable that if the manufacturing business is found sufficiently profitable for a series of years in this country, that the upper parts of the Mississippi Valley will, in no long time, be the chief seat of American manufactures. Already labor and capital, to a large amount, are employed in manufactures of various sorts in the west. In western Pennsylvania, the upper part of western Virginia, and in the eastern part of Ohio, manufactories of cotton, wool, silk, paper, wooden and stone ware, &c., &c., abound.

The Greensboro' Patriot gives an accouut of eight manufactories, one, the Mt. Hecla, in that town, and the others in the neighborhood, viz: the High Falls and Alamance factories, in Orange; the Cedar Falls and Franklinsville factories, in Randolph; the Lexington, in Davidson; the Salem, in Stokes; and the Leaksville, in Rockingham. That called Mt. Hecla, was among the first put in operation in the southern country. The Lexington and Salem factories are worked by steam. The products of these mills, besides supplying an extensive country demand, are sent off in immense quantities to the northern and western markets.

In Fayetteville and immediate vicinity, the Observer enumerates six factories, viz: Mallett's, Cross Creek, Phœnix, Rockfish, Beaver Creek, and Little River.

Besides these, there are, in other parts of the state, one at Salisbury; one at Rockingham; one at Lincolnton; one at Rocky Mount, Edgecombe; one at Cane Creek, Chatham; one at Concord, Cabarrus; one at Milton; one at Mocksville; one at Milledgeville, Montgomery county; one in Surry county; and one other in Orange county; making twenty-five in all.

The capital invested in the twenty-five is estimated, by the Observer, at about a million and fifty thousand dollars; the number of spindles about fifty thousand; persons employed from twelve to fifteen hundred, and number of bales of cotton consumed at not less than fifteen thousand.

EUROPEAN TRADE TO CHINA.

The entire European trade to China, last year, consisted of seven hundred and eighty four vessels, of 326,000 tons, of which England had six hundred vessels, of 266,000 tons, and France three vessels of 1,250 tons; yet so jealous is France of England, that she has sent a large fleet and a numerous embassy to China to secure a commercial treaty. The English papers ridicule this, and sarcastically declare that the French and Chinese have claimed to produce and excel in almost the same manufactures, such as silks and porcelain, and ivory and gim-crackery, whilst one has no taste for the edibles or drinkables of the other. The French consume no tea, the Chinese no wine. On the other hand, the French have already found rivals in the Chinese, who have driven their silks from the markets of Java.

COUNTERFEIT MEXICAN DOLLARS.

Some doubt is expressed by the New Orleans Bee, whether the government of Mexico has not ventured upon the ruinous and disgraceful expedient of debasing the coin of that country. A considerable amount of Mexican money was recently found in the possession of a young man, who was proved to have received it in good faith, which, on examination, was found to be largely mingled with spurious alloy. Fifteen of the dollars were assayed by Dr. Riddell. Several of them were found to contain 52, 53, 54 and 55 cents of silver, and the rest copper; others were composed of nickel and copper. From the testimony elicited, it seems probable that the money was actually issued from the Mexican mints.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*History of the Conquest of Mexico, with a preliminary view of the Ancient Mexican Civilization, and the Life of the Conqueror, Hernando Cortes.* By WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT, author of the "History of Ferdinand and Isabella." In three volumes. Harper & Brothers.

This is a book of which, in every respect, an American may well be proud. It is, indeed, and in the best sense, an honor to our literature. It takes rank among the best histories that have ever been written, and will well maintain it in the face of the most severe and hostile criticism. Although the subject is one which might almost pardonably seduce a brilliant imagination to indulge its powers at the expense of strict and established truth, we see Mr. Prescott, throughout, sifting his authorities, which he has collected with rare and surprising diligence, with the utmost care and judgment, and confining the cause of his narrations strictly to events of which some sound and reliable memorial exists. The first portion of the first volume contains a view of the civilization of the very ancient people who occupied the Mexican territory from the remote period of 625 to the time of its conquest by the Spanish power. The only method of recording events which they possessed was by picture-writing, or a species of hieroglyphics, much less elaborate and precise than those of Eastern nations. The only source, therefore, whence information could be drawn concerning their history and their character must have come from the scattered remains of these early records, translated into some modern tongue by the labors of the early monks, or others into whose hands they chanced to fall. It is only within a few years that the collection of these materials has attracted the attention and occupied the labors of scholars and historians. But the recent efforts in this direction have been crowned with abundant success; and the libraries of Spain, public and private, and the public archives of Mexico, contain a vast amount of documents of which no use had heretofore been made by Mexican historians. Mr. Prescott has availed himself, to the fullest extent, of the original materials thus furnished, and has been engaged for several years with rare and unyielding diligence in their collection, arrangement, and laborious study. The history of the Aztecs, as the tribe was called, who, coming from the north, conquered and crushed the Toltees, or original inhabitants of the Mexican territory, which he has thus presented, is not only infinitely superior to that of every other writer who has attempted the same difficult task, but is in itself one of the most remarkable and interesting histories we have ever read. As their society and nation are pictured here, they seem to have been a truly wonderful people. Their forms of civil government, especially their judicial organization, and, more than all, many of the abstract tenets in their religious faith, exhibit an advance in civilization, and a development of the moral and religious sentiments far beyond what could reasonably have been expected from the age, (and perfect isolation from all Eastern nations) in which they lived. This opening portion of Mr. Prescott's work occupies about two hundred pages, and forms one of the most deeply interesting and instructive historical sketches ever issued. Following this, and most properly introduced by a general view of the political character of Spain under Charles V., and his colonial policy, we have an account of the original discovery of Mexico, and then the life of Hernando Cortes, interwoven with the history of his brilliant and wonderful conquest. The present volume closes with the year 1519, leaving thus by far the greatest and most romantic portion of the Mexican conquest to succeeding volumes.

2.—*The Birthright.* A Novel. By Mrs. GORE, authoress of "Mothers and Daughters," &c. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This novel forms No. 24 of the Harpers' "Library of Select Novels," and is sold for twelve and a half cents.

3.—*The Life and Speeches of the Hon. Henry Clay.* In two vols. 8vo., pp. 606, 600. Compiled and edited by DANIEL MALLORY. New York: Robert P. Bixby & Co.

The publication of the intellectual efforts of our prominent statesmen is one of the most useful literary enterprises of our own day, and among them we are here provided with a biographical sketch, as well as the speeches, of a brilliant and popular orator and statesman. Mr. Clay has been, during a long course of public service, identified with the discussions of some of our most important national interests, and has expressed himself freely in public bodies upon them in debates in both branches of the national legislature. Those speeches, probably scattered through various journals, have here been carefully collated and compiled, and we are thus enabled to judge accurately his intellectual character, as well as his opinions upon most of the conspicuous political questions of his time. Without entering into a critical review of his merit as an orator and statesman, it may be remarked that the parliamentary efforts of Mr. Clay are distinguished for boldness and expanse of view, as well as a freedom and candor, which stamp him as an orator and a statesman, of which the country may well be proud. As a mere debater, for we do not discuss his peculiar political views, he stands among the first, and to his matter is added a manner, which seldom fails to instruct and to delight. Unaided by adventitious circumstances, he has worked his way to one of the most eminent places in the public view, and has long stood before the nation in bold relief. The public, we doubt not, will thank the compiler for the present volumes not only in respect to the compilation itself, but the form in which it appears. The two volumes furnish altogether the most elegant specimen of typography of the day. They are from the press of Samuel N. Dickinson, of Boston, the "prince of printers" in America.

4.—*Life of John Tyler, President of the United States, up to the close of the second session of the Twenty-seventh Congress; including some of his most important Speeches while member of the House of Representatives and of the Senate of the United States, and his principal Messages and other Public Papers, as Chief Magistrate of the Union.* 8vo. pp. 256. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

Mr. Tyler, from his official station, derives so prominent a position before the public, as to call for the publication of the present pamphlet. It embraces the principal circumstances of his life and public services, together with a selection from his speeches and political papers. From this we learn that he has long been a prominent and respectable citizen of the state of Virginia, that he is a member of the legal profession, and that he has filled the offices of member of the House of Representatives and senator in Congress, with credit to himself, and with satisfaction to his constituents. The compilation contains his efforts made upon important public questions, which evince a good understanding of the subjects which they discuss, and apparent candor in the expression of his opinions. To these are added some of the most conspicuous state papers which he has issued since he arrived at the office of chief magistrate of the United States. Without expressing any opinion respecting its distinctive political views, we would remark that the publication is creditable to his talents, and will doubtless gratify his friends.

5.—*Neal's History of the Puritans.* Edited by JOHN O. CHOULES, M. A. With portraits on steel. In two volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This work is to be completed in eight parts, at twenty-five cents each, and will form two royal octavo volumes, of about twelve hundred pages. It is printed on a clear and beautiful type, and good paper. It will embrace a history of the Protestant non-conformists, from the reformation, in 1517, to the revolution, in 1688; comprising an account of their principles, their attempts for a farther reformation of the church, their sufferings, and the lives and characters of the most celebrated divines. It is a reprint from the text of Dr. Toulmin's edition, with his life of the author, and account of his writings; and with the revision, correction, enlargement, and additional notes, made by Mr. Choules, will doubtless form altogether the most valuable edition of the work extant.

6.—*The Young Student; or, Ralph and Victor.* By Madame Guizot. From the French. By Samuel Jackson. Three volumes complete in one. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

The biographical portraitures, comprised in this delightful volume, are said to be drawn from actual life; with no other embellishments than those which are requisite to give interest to the narrative. The "Young Student," as here depicted, is designed to illustrate the accurate principles of the domestic management of children, with the superintendence over youth which appertains to their social, moral and intellectual training. There is a great variety of bustling incidents embodied in this bewitching narrative—not the events of wild, impossible, or unobserved romance—but the obvious circumstances of ordinary life, such as the society on the eastern confines of France ever develops. Among the other noble lessons inculcated by Madame Guizot, her ethical verisimilitudes develop the indescribable pangs of gambling and intemperance; not in the fictitious array of events, which are unknown to common observers, but as they were and are exhibited in all parts of the world, where these demons still instigate and sway their deluded victims. There is no overstrained effect to produce an impression. All apparently is a straight-forward story of several events, which every person believes, when perusing them, actually happened. Madame Guizot, the writer of the present narrative, is the late consort of the prime minister of France. The French Academy recommended this work, as the most favorable to good morals that had appeared during the year of its publication. The London Literary Gazette, good authority, pronounces it one of the most simply interesting and pleasing, as well as instructive moral tales, which the French press has produced.

7.—*The Bible Expositor. Confirmations of the Truth of the Holy Scriptures; from the Observations of Recent Travellers, illustrating the Manners, Customs, and Places referred to in the Bible.* New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

This volume was originally published under the direction of the Society in England for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge. It consists of extracts from the narratives of creditable travellers in Arabia, Petræa, and the Holy Land, who have recorded the manners and customs of the oriental nations; and as many of their usages and habits are little changed since the patriarchal times, it reflects a flood of light upon many passages of the Scriptures, full of importance and beauty, but not generally understood, because they contain allusions to manners and customs, familiar indeed to those to whom they were originally addressed, but imperfectly known to us. We know of no work so well calculated to assist every reader of the Bible in obtaining a clearer perception of the propriety and beauty of the illustrations so often drawn, of eastern customs, in the Bible.

8.—*The Farmer's Treasure; a Practical Treatise on the Nature and Value of Manures, founded from experiments on various Crops. With a brief account of all the most recent discoveries in Agricultural Chemistry.* By F. Falkner, Esq. To which is added, Productive Farming. By Joseph A. Smith. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1844.

The "Farmer's Treasure" is devoted to an explanation of the nature and constitution of manures generally. It also points out the means of augmenting the quantity, and preserving the fertilizing power of farm-yard manure; and the various sciences of mineral and other artificial manures, with the causes of their frequent failure. The second part of the volume, "Productive Farming," presents, in a comprehensive form, a familiar digest of the recent discoveries of Liebig, Johnson, Davy, and other celebrated writers on vegetable chemistry.

9.—*Early Piety.* By Jacob Abbott. New York: John S. Taylor.

In this little treatise, the duty and pleasantness of early piety are pointed out and eloquently enforced, by one of the most popular and instructive authors of works for the young of the present time.

10.—*A Memoir of the Construction, Cost and Capacity of the Croton Aqueduct. Compiled from official documents. Together with an account of the Civic Celebration of the fourteenth October*, 1842, *on occasion of the completion of the great work. Preceded by a Preliminary Essay on Ancient and Modern Aqueducts.* By CHARLES KING. New York: Printed by Charles King. 1843.

This well-written and neatly-executed work, as its title indicates, contains a full account of the Croton Aqueduct, that beneficent enterprise, whose advantages are already appreciated by the bountiful supply of pure water to the city of New York. Mr. King has, in the Preliminary Essay, embraced in a clear and comprehensive form, and from authoritative sources, the prominent facts connected with the ancient and modern aqueducts, running back to the earliest time. The memoir and description of the Croton Aqueduct is derived from official reports and documents, and the account of the civic celebration, that occurred on the completion of the work, must be interesting to the reader. The volume is properly prefaced by an engraved view of the Croton Dam, which serves to give an increased value to the volume. The selection of Mr. King as the historian of this noble enterprise was highly creditable to the character of the city government, as it would be difficult to find an individual better qualified for such an undertaking.

11.—*The History of Long Island, from its Discovery and Settlement to the present time. With many important and interesting matters, including notices of numerous individuals and families. Also, a particular account of the different Churches and Ministers.* By BENJAMIN F. THOMPSON, Counsellor at Law. Second edition, revised and greatly enlarged. 2 vols., pp. 511, 554. New York: Gould, Banks, & Co.

The volumes, whose title we have here prefixed, are a valuable contribution to the local history of the country. The author appears to have exercised a more than usual degree of industry and perseverance in searching out the circumstances connected with the numerous settlements upon Long Island, and has fortified his statements with many original and authentic documents. Besides the merely historic circumstances that have marked this interesting portion of our republic, he has given us a topographical account of the island, a description of its geographical features, and its geology. We have here, also, its general, as well as its local history; and the volume is illustrated by an excellent map, and a great number of well-executed representations of prominent places within its bounds. To the citizens of Long Island it will doubtless be a work of frequent reference and general circulation.

12.—*Scenes and Scenery in the Sandwich Islands, and a trip through Central America, being Observations from my Note-book during the years* 1837–1842. By JAMES J. JARVIS. 12mo., pp. 341. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1843.

This volume is an interesting and well-written account of the author's observations during a residence in the Sandwich Islands, and a narrative of a trip made by him through Central America. It contains many interesting descriptions of those islands, connected with their scenery, topography, and natural history, besides some statistical facts, that seem to have been collected with all due diligence. The style is clear, pointed, and graphic, and the work has been published in a very handsome form, and illustrated by several well-executed engravings of scenery and prominent places. From recent circumstances connected with those islands, it will, we doubt not, attract public attention; and the author, from his long residence there, is peculiarly qualified to give us the most desirable information upon the subjects of which it treats.

13.—*Original Poems for Infant Minds.* By the TAYLOR FAMILY. New York: Saxton & Miles.

There are we don't know how many editions in this country, from the twelfth London edition. It is the handsomest edition of a work so universally known and esteemed, that the mere announcement of it is sufficient for those who have not already put it into the hands of their children to do so.

14.—*The Poems of Eliza Cook.* With twelve exquisite illustrations. New York: J. & H. G. Langley.

This beautiful volume may be styled, as we observe it has already been by some, the *gem of the season.* It equals the best efforts of our emulative and enterprising publishers; and, whether we consider the exquisite finish of its embellishments, its elegance of typography, or its very chaste and elaborately ornamental binding, it fully sustains our assertion. In a word, the volume is *unique*, and we need say no more; for no doubt our readers would anticipate us, were we to do so, as the work has already created quite a sensation among the purchasers of holiday and present-books of the season. If any one should not, however, have yet seen the work, we can promise them a luxurious treat in reserve, and would counsel them forthwith to indulge in it.

15.—*The Select Works of Mrs. Ellis.* Illustrated edition. New York: J. & H. G. Langley.

Mrs. Ellis, as a writer on domestic morals, has taken the rank of the Hannah Mores, the Edgeworths, and Porters of former times. She is even superior to these eminent authors, in many particulars we might mention; but her productions have become so world-renowned, that the province of the critic seems to be superseded. We have only, therefore, to commend to the reading community—indeed, to *all* classes of society—the beautiful collected edition of her most favorite works, embellished with seven splendid English illustrations. The volume comprises the Wives, Women, and Daughters of England, Poetry of Life, &c.; forming a handsome octavo volume, which is enclosed in an elegant cover, gilt, &c. We cannot conceive of a more suitable or acceptable work for a domestic present-book.

16.—*Notes on the Acts of the Apostles, chiefly explanatory; designed for Teachers in Sabbath Schools and Bible Classes, and as an aid to Family Instruction.* By Henry J. Ripley. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

The author of these Notes is the present Professor of Sacred Rhetoric and Pastoral Duties in the Newton Theological Institute. They are designed to be a companion to his Notes on the Gospels, and although conducted on the same general principles with that work, all reference to it is avoided; so that those who are not possessed of the "Gospels," will not suffer any embarrassment. The notes, in the present volume, illustrating the scriptural text, serve to explain the author's views of the meaning of the sacred historian, and are written in a chaste, clear, and comprehensive style; and although Mr. Ripley is of the Baptist denomination, every Christian reader, without regard to sect, will find comparatively little to dissent from, or at least will gain a clearer insight into the purport of these records of the labors of the apostles, and the progress of the Christian doctrine during the earliest period of its promulgation by the immediate disciples of its divine founder.

17.—*Lyra Apostolica.* First American, from the fifth English edition. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1844.

We have in this elegantly printed volume one hundred and seventy-nine poems, mainly on social, moral and religious subjects; calculated to interest and elevate the spiritual taste and sensibilities of man's higher nature. The pieces are reprinted from the British Magazine, where they originally appeared. Aside from their value, as instruments in recommending to the reader Christian truths, they possess merit as chaste and classical lyrical poems.

18.—*Victorine: A Tale from Real Life.* New York: Edward Dunigan.

This simple and beautiful narrative, published in similar style and size to the "Garland of Hope," is dedicated to those "who love truth and virtue," in the belief that to such the brief life of the heroine will prove interesting. It breathes throughout the pure and beautiful sentiments of Christianity.

19.—*A Treatise on Domestic Economy, for the use of Young Ladies at Home and at School.* By Miss CATHARINE E. BEECHER. Revised edition, with numerous additions and illustrative engravings. Boston: Thomas H. Webb & Co. 1843.

This volume forms one of the admirable series of works prepared under the direct supervision of the highly respectable Board of Education in Massachusetts, and has been introduced into the district school libraries of that state. That Miss Beecher was eminently qualified for the task of its preparation, may be inferred from the facts that she herself suffered from the want of such knowledge in early life; that she had the charge of a female seminary for some twelve years, and subsequent extensive travels gave her such a view of female health in this country, and of the causes which tend to weaken and destroy the constitution of young women, together with the sufferings consequent to a want of early domestic knowledge and habits; and further, being the eldest of a large family, she had, from early life, been accustomed to the care of children, and to the performance of most domestic duties. She appears to have availed herself not only of her own experience, but to have gleaned stores of information from the experience of many other accomplished and exemplary housekeepers. The volume embraces the whole range of subjects connected with domestic economy—moral, mental, and physical.

20.—*The Wintergreen; a Perennial Gift for* 1844. Edited by JOHN KEESE. New York: Charles Wells & Co.

This appropriate present for a new year comes to us with all the appliances of fine paper, finished engravings, and gilded binding that seem appropriate to the design for which it was published. Nor is it wanting in literary matter calculated to enhance the value of the volume. We might select several of its pieces, illustrated by the engraver, which would do credit to any of the annuals issued either in our own country or abroad; and we hope that the volume will meet the pecuniary reward which its merit so richly deserves.

21.—*The Trial of the Pope of Rome, the Antichrist, or Man of Sin, described in the Bible, for High Treason against the Son of God. Tried at the Sessions House of Truth, before the Right Hon. Divine Revelation, Lord Chief Justice of His Majesty's Court of Equity; the Hon. Justice Reason, of said Court, and the Hon. Justice History, one of His Majesty's Court of Information.* Taken in Short Hand. By a Friend of St. Peter, &c. &c. Boston: Tappan & Dennet.

The object of this little volume is sufficiently apparent from the copious and rather curious title page. It embraces arguments against Popery professedly drawn from scripture, reason, and history. The present is the second American edition, with an appendix consisting chiefly of extracts from American Protestant writers.

22.—*The Works of Mrs. Hemans; with a Memoir by her Sister, and an Essay on her Genius.* By Mrs. SIGOURNEY. In seven vols. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The present edition, the first volume of which is before us, is handsomely printed on good paper, and although forming a volume of nearly eight hundred pages, is sold at the low price of fifty cents. It forms, very appropriately, one of the admirable series of works in course of publication under the general title of the "Ladies Cabinet Series." It would be a work of supererogation, if not of presumption on our part, to speak of the character of Mrs. Hemans' poetical works at this late day. Her fame rests upon a foundation far above our power either to strengthen, or affect in any other manner.

23.—*Life of Andrew Jackson, Private, Military, and Civil.* BY AMOS KENDALL. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

The second number of this splendid specimen of American typography has been published; thirteen numbers more will complete the work. The present contains two beautiful engravings on steel, one representing an incident illustrative of the presence of mind of "young Jackson," and the other "Indians attacking a station," a spirited picture.

24.—*Sir Walter Scott's Monument.* New York: A. L. Dick, Engraver, Printer, and Publisher.

This is a large and beautiful engraving on steel, of the monument now erecting at Edinburgh, south side of Princes'-street, opposite St. David Height, to the memory of Sir Walter Scott. The old town is seen in the distance; and, altogether, it forms one of the most splendid and admirably-executed specimens of the art ever produced in this country. Mr. Dick is a Scotchman, and seems to have imparted a higher life and spirit to the engraving than we usually meet with in prints made to sell. It is worthy of a place in the picture-gallery of the most refined.

25.—*Letters from Ireland.* MDCCCXXXVII. By Charlotte Elizabeth. 12mo., pp. 351. New York: John S. Taylor & Co. 1843.

This writer wields a versatile and spirited pen; and perhaps the only objection to her style is that which necessarily attends voluminous and rapid authorship—too constant an effort at forcible language, with a want of varied diction. These letters contain a rapid sketch of a journey from the south to the north of Ireland, with some amusing incidents, historical reflections, and judicious remarks upon the national character. As a Protestant, she thinks and writes with warmth; but she entertains a high respect for the Irish, whom she has had the advantage of knowing and studying at their firesides. The letters are written with elegance, and an easy flow of thought and incident, which render their perusal pleasing, as well as instructive. Messrs. Taylor & Co. have undertaken the republication of Charlotte Elizabeth's works in a uniform series, of which these letters form the eighth volume.

26.—*Christianæ Militiæ Viaticum: or, the Christian's Pocket Companion.* New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

This neat little pocket volume contains the private rules by which the lives of such men as Edwards and Brainerd, and Rogers and Mason, were regulated; and introduces the reader to them in the closet, the family, the social circle, the pulpit, and in the discharge of their parochial duties.

27.—*The Complete Confectioner, Pastry-Cook, and Baker.* Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This little manual, based upon Read's Confectioner, a late London publication, with additions and alterations adapting it to the various articles of luxury which the bounty of our soil and climate render almost exclusively American, by Parkinson, a practical confectioner of Philadelphia, contains upwards of five hundred receipts for plain and practical confectionery and pastry, baking, &c., &c.

28.—*Ephraim Holding's Homely Hints.* Chiefly addressed to Sunday School Teachers. By Old Humphrey, author of "Old Humphrey's Observations," "Addresses," "Thoughts for the Thoughtful," and "Walks in London." 18mo., pp. 241. New York: Robert Carter. 1844.

The several works named in the title-page of this volume have all been republished in this country by Mr. Carter, and have had an extensive circulation among Christians of different denominations. It possesses all the peculiarities of manner and thought which characterize those that have preceded it, and will be equally as popular with his numerous admirers.

29.—*The Garland of Hope.* Translated from the French. Baltimore: J. Murphy. New York: Edward Dunigan.

This beautiful little volume contains, within its gilded covering and leaves, a simple tale, depicting the sufferings of virtuous poverty, the loveliness of filial piety, and final reward and happiness of steady and consistent goodness.

☞ Several notices of new books, and reprints of standard works, crowded out, will appear in our next number.

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME X. FEBRUARY, 1844. NUMBER II.

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MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE,

EMBRACING A FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC., ILLUSTRATED WITH TABLES, AS FOLLOWS:

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Art. I.—COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES OF THE PAPAL STATES.

ROME.

Rome is, to the Papal states, what Paris is to France—the centre of attraction and interest. It is a sort of "Mecca and Palestine of the mind." It is filled with art, and hallowed by all that is great and thrilling in human history. The shadows of the mighty centuries fall over it, in which move and speak her Cæsars and Ciceros, Rienzi, and Gracchi. Amid her ruins and relics, men have forgot that Rome, like every other city, must have her merchants and manufactories; without which, her very ruins would soon disappear, under ruins of a more recent date. The day when nations can live by conquest, is gone by forever; and even Rome, whose only commercial agents once were her haughty legions, and whose system of barter was sword and slaughter, for captives and plunder, is now compelled to wheel feebly into the ranks of other nations, and live, scantily though it may be, on their more peaceful means of subsistence. The wandering enthusiast, and dreaming artist, never think of these practical matters; and even the rich New York merchant, who, in the successful prosecution of his business, has acquired the wealth which enables him to loiter amid these great associations, never takes the trouble to inquire whether the imperial city, with its dependent states, has any of that commerce and trade to which he owes his elevation. We do not speak of them as objects of national interest, or, indeed, of peculiarly great importance; but as objects of curiosity. To us it was a pleasant relief to turn from the associations and memories of the "empire of the world," under which the overtasked spirit had become wearied, to these lighter and more practical matters. As we ran over the present reports of Rome, and contrasted them with those which a Marius, or Pompey, and Sylla, and Cæsar, were accustomed to bring home, we could not but smile at the change the centuries had wrought.

The Papal states are not so interesting, in their commercial aspect, as many other states of Italy. They possess not so fine a port as Leghorn,

or Genoa, or Naples; while, over those she does have, she throws severer restrictions. The Papal states, or those over which the pope reigns as a temporal monarch, are extremely limited; being bounded by the Lombardy-Venetian kingdom on the north, by the Adriatic on the east, by Naples on the southeast, and on the west and northwest by the Mediterranean, and the kingdoms of Tuscany and Modena. The territory embraced in this is only 18,117 Roman square miles, with a population of 2,732,736, or about the same as New York state. But what is still more surprising, in this old country, so overcrowded with paupers and beggars, only *one-third* of this fruitful territory is cultivated. These states are traversed by several fine rivers, but the Tiber is the only one navigable. The Tronto and Metauro, emptying into the Adriatic, serve only for the light fishing-craft of the gulf, and Ancona and Civita Vecchia are the only two ports of importance on the coast. Terracina and Porto d'Anzo were anciently among her chief ports; but the immense deposits of sand made in them, during the lapse of centuries, have entirely blocked them up to larger vessels. These states are divided into twenty provinces, one of which embraces Rome, Tivoli, and Subiaco. The other nineteen are divided into six legations, and thirteen delegations; the only difference in which is, the former are governed by cardinals, and the latter by monsignori, or prelates. The government is an unlimited, elective hierarchy, with the pope for its head; but, not to enter on details, it is selfish and despotic in its character, and restrictive in all its acts. However kind the feelings of the pope may be toward his subjects, a broad and liberal policy can never characterize his government, under its present form. The effect of this is to deaden every enterprise, and render even the great resources of the country almost entirely useless. The Papal states possess resources, on the proper use and development of which they must eventually stand or fall. Not a thousand ruined forums, and seven times seven hills, loaded with ruins, can save them, or Italy, without the cultivation of a more commercial spirit. The age of art and conquest have both gone by; and the practical age—the age of spinning-jennies and steamboats—has come. Rome must take down S. P. Q. R. (Senate and People of Rome) from her buildings, and put in their places sign-boards, with those other more significant words—"Cotton-mill," "Iron manufactory," "American store-house," &c., &c. These states, with proper encouragement to industry, could be made to yield a larger revenue than now, with *half* the oppressive taxation. The present revenue is about $10,000,000. The mere expense of collecting this is $230,000, while about $300,000 goes to pay the interest of the public debt.

These resources of which we have spoken are seldom noticed by the traveller. He hurries from one great city to another, with his open guide-book in his hand, which points out every ruin and fragment of the past, but says never a word of the advantages furnished to agriculture or trade. Indeed, he can hardly be blamed for it; for here he first sets foot on *classic* Italy, and every step is hallowed by great associations. He is amid the familiar scenes of the greatest philosophers, poets, and statesmen of the world. Nor is this all. On this ground, when Rome had fallen under her corruptions and factions, and her soaring eagle lay soiled and helpless in the dust, arose the republics of the middle ages. It was here that, after the greatest empire of the world had fallen, arose, perhaps, a still nobler fabric—a system of constitutional freedom—under which the human mind

developed itself with a rapidity and grandeur that Rome, in the plenitude of her power, had never equalled. Here, civilization received its earliest, strongest impulses. But, like the traveller, I am forgetting my object in these early, interesting remembrances.

To return—there are few countries, either in Europe or on this side of the Atlantic, possessing more natural advantages than this portion of Italy; but these are not only unappreciated by foreigners, but by the Italians themselves. Entirely shut out from England and America—indeed, from all the wide-awake world—they are ignorant of what they might do with their beautiful country. Old as these states are, they contain immense forests almost entirely neglected. Wines—excellent wines—that run like water from their fountains, are drank almost entirely within their own limits. No effort is given to make them a lucrative article of commerce beyond the frontier. The motion of the vessel, on a long sea-voyage, causes them to ferment and spoil; but, in my opinion, a little study, and some few experiments, would remedy this difficulty, and the wines of Italy become not only a lucrative article of commerce, but an object of speculation. There is also much mineral wealth here, which is but half explored; and even those mines which are known are so feebly worked, that they furnish no index to their real value. Manufactures are a little on the gain, but the material they furnish is for home consumption; which, after all, is not half supplied. It seems never to have entered into the heads of Italians to compete with foreign nations, and produce for foreign markets. The great fault of the Italian capitalist is *narrowness of views*. He gains by cents and half cents. He never forms extensive plans. He moves as if made to move in the narrow sphere he commenced in, and absolutely rejects the offers circumstances make him. Genoa is not so culpable, in this respect, as the middle and southern states of Italy. To one accustomed to the reports of our manufacturing states, the following list will present a sorry picture. It is as perfect as can be obtained:—

Woollen cloths, to the amount of	300,000 scudi.*
Hats, in Rome alone	200,000 "
Wax candles, in Rome alone	250,000 "

Besides, there are other articles, for domestic use. Silks, damasks, and velvets, are manufactured at Rome, Bologna, and other places; and at Fossombrone, the Duke de Leuchtenberg has erected a steam manufactory. Ribbons and silk stockings are made at Bologna, Forli, Fano, and Pesaro. The manufacture of cotton has progressed slowly. The principal mill, if I may use the term, is in the semicircular *Theatridium of the Baths of Diocletian*. It is odd that these magnificent baths, founded in 302, by Diocletian and Maximian, should be used for fabricating cotton, in 1843. On this noble structure, forty thousand Christians were once employed; and they have built, it seems, a *cotton-mill*. Hemp and flax are manufactured with greater success than cotton; and the ropes and cordage made in the asylums, public schools, and ropewalks, are of excellent quality, and are exported to the Archipelago. The largest *ropewalk* I have ever seen, is in the old Roman forum. Excellent paper is manufactured in the states, to the amount of three millions six hundred thousand pounds. The best manufactory is at Fabriano, and has been founded ever since the year 1564. Large quantities are exported to the Levant, and some even to

* A scudi is equal to the American dollar.

the Brazils. The silk veils and crape of Bologna, once celebrated over Europe, are still sent to France.

The carpets of Pergola, once as much admired and sought after, in the Lombardy-Venetian kingdom, as the English pattern, have lately declined. Other things, to an insignificant amount, are manufactured; but it is plain, from the above statement, that the manufactures of the Papal dominions are in a most sickly and inefficient state. Yet, feeble and lifeless as the Papal states are, in all the active business that constitutes the greatness and wealth of modern nations, they still have their exports; and a most curious list they furnish, for one of the oldest and richest portions of the earth. But here I would remark that it is impossible to give the amount of each article of commerce to or from most of the Italian ports, as the reports of the custom-houses are kept secret with the government, and other nations do not keep the reports from each one distinct, but mix them all up, under the head of Italy. The Papal states are worse than all others, in this respect; so that even M'Culloch, who has gone more thoroughly into these subjects than any other man, is entirely silent on this portion of Italy. He is indefinite on Naples and other ports, but says not a word of a *single* port of the Papal states.

We think the following is as full a statement as can be obtained. The *principal* exports are oil from the southern provinces, and corn from Romagna, and hemp and anniseed; but the numerical amount of these I am unable to give.

There is exported, also,			Woad, to the annual amount of.....	14,000 lbs.
"	"	"	Tobacco,*	300,000 "
"	"	"	Cork bark, from Civita Vecchia to England,...	550,000 "
"	"	"	Rags, for manure,.....	3,000,000 "

It is a ludicrous fact, that some of the heaviest exports from His Holiness' dominions should correspond so well with the character of the beggared population; but when one has seen the uncleanliness and filth of the lower classes, he does not wonder that the rags that cover them should sell so well for manure. But, really, how these three millions of pounds of rags are managed when they reach other ports, is quite a mystery to me—with what sort of instruments they handle them; I was going to say, with what sort of weapons of defence they *dare* to disturb them! There are, besides, other exports, the exact amount of which cannot be ascertained. In Viterbo, are vitriol-works, yielding annually one hundred thousand pounds, one-half of which is exported. In Pesaro and Rimini, are sulphur-mines, yielding four millions of pounds, a large proportion of which is exported. The salt-works of Cervia Commachio and Corneto yield annually seventy-six millions of pounds. Wool, and wrought silk, are exported in large quantities to France and England. A vast number of oxen, also, are sent into Tuscany. Potash is another article of export. Alum is found at Tolfa, but the introduction of artificial alum has lessened the trade. Besides, the works belong to government, which drives nothing energetically, unless it be its religious affairs. Such is the meagre account Rome, once the mistress of the world, gives of herself. While she has sunk under her conquests, America is rising, with her ancient rapidity and glory, among the nations. But how different the systems of the two nations! The eagle has been the chosen symbol of both; but,

* The tobacco of Italy is of a very inferior quality, and scarcely deserves the name.

in the one, it led only armies, and roared amid the smoke and storm of battle. In the other, it waves at the mast-head of peaceful vessels, girding the world with their commerce. *Her* Cæsars were of the battle-field; *ours* are of the plough and counting-house.

To the other causes I have already mentioned, tending to injure commerce and manufactures in the Papal states, should be added the low state of agriculture. A highly cultivated land is necessary to the permanent prosperity of any nation. Even England, isolated and sea-girt as she is, would never have extended her commerce so far, had not her land been highly cultivated. There is a strong and necessary connection between the agricultural, commercial, and manufacturing interests of a country. The United States begin to discover their error in this matter, and see that their traders have been too many, and the tillers of the land too few. In an overpopulated country, agriculture can flourish, to a certain extent, alone; but not so with the two other sources of wealth. Without manufactures, and the produce of the land, to exchange for the commodities of other nations, commerce soon dies; and the growth of large cities and districts, which manufactures and trade create, make a continual demand on the soil of the country to sustain them. They are connected, also, in other ways, not so palpable at first sight, but which we cannot now stop to discuss. This is practically illustrated in the Papal states. Their agricultural system is the same with Tuscany, (if we except, perhaps, the Roman Campagna, as the tract around the city is called,) and yet Tuscany is a garden, while the Papal states are a half desert. Now, what can create this difference? We can see nothing, except the free port of Leghorn, and the liberal policy connected with trade. The active industry which has given to Tuscany its beauty and fruitfulness, is wanting here; but active industry is never wanting where it is sufficiently rewarded. Men will work, if paid for it. Governments may shove the guilt of beggary, and starvation of the people, from their doors, as much as they like; the experience and good sense of the world will still place it there.

The Mezzaria system, or the letting the farm upon shares, is the old and universal custom, both in the Papal states and Tuscany. The landlord furnishes the necessary capital, the tenant all the agricultural implements and labor. The seed is paid for jointly, and then the entire gross produce is divided equally. This partnership of the landlord and tenant works well in Tuscany, but destructively in the dominions of the Church. This system seems, at first sight, very fair, especially as all the expense of ditching, draining, clearing, &c., falls on the landlord. In Tuscany, it is found profitable, notwithstanding many evils; and its ruinous action in the Papal states shows there is something wrong besides the Mezzaria system. Industry is not properly encouraged, while the improved implements of agriculture that would make it cheaper, cannot be introduced, from the heavy duties laid on them by government. The plough, for instance, is merely a round pointed piece of wood, sometimes shod with iron, that passes like a stick through the ground, and does not turn a large beautiful furrow like our modern plough. On this half-and-half system, it is found by inquiry, that the tenant is always in debt to the landlord. It is a singular fact, also, that farms, let on the Mezzaria system, yield only 2¼ per cent, while those given on long leases, yield 3 per cent. As another proof that industry is not properly rewarded, grazing is found more profitable than planting, on these immense plains, that can be tilled as

easily as the Mohawk flats. The mode of managing rich arable lands around the eternal city, would be considered rather odd in the new world. I am not now speaking of the system of small farms with poor landlords and poorer tenants, but of the mode of farming the large districts. The tract of land called the Maremma district, embracing the territory that lies on the sea between Tuscany and Naples, the low land around Ferrara and Ravenna, and the Campagna around Rome itself, called by agriculturists the "Agro Romano," are all divided into immense farms, owned of course by a few wealthy men. Thus the whole Maremma district is owned by only one hundred and fifty farmers. So also in the Agro Romano, embracing 550,000 acres, exists the same impolitic division. One of the farms, called the "Campo Marto," contains 20,000 acres, others 3,000, while there are none below 1,000. This whole territory is owned by forty-two or three landlords, called "Mercanti di Campagna," (merchants of the country.) They constitute a privileged corporation, under the protection of government. Each merchant rents several farms, paying tax only for that portion under cultivation. These Mercanti are, of course, extremely wealthy. They never reside on their farms, but build for themselves palaces in Rome, where they live in unbounded luxury. Their counting-houses and clerks are also all in the city. The "fattore," as he is called in Italian, or steward, resides with a few herdsmen in the solitary Casale—the only occupants of the immense plain. It requires a capital of $100,000 to manage one of the largest of these farms, and the smallest require $10,000. The rent of the Campo Marto alone is $25,000 a year. The Mezzaria system, as I remarked, prevails almost universally, although, in some parts, leases or fixed rents are common. This is where the large farms are let to individuals, who immediately subdivide them into smaller ones, and rent them to men of smaller capital.

These immense half barren tracts are as lonely looking as our western prairies; nay, more so, for the dilapidated form of some old ruin rising on the view, tells you that it was not always so—that once, glorious structures adorned that plain, and the hum of a busy population was heard on its surface. I have seldom seen a more lonely spectacle than the rude mud huts, shaped like a bee-hive, of the herdsmen, standing here and there on the unfenced plain, while the steward, alone or with keepers dressed in their shaggy sheep skin coat, with pike in hand, were galloping amid the herds on their half wild horses. They look more like Arabs than peaceful farmers. This system of grazing is practised only in the winter, when on the Campagna alone are collected more than *half a million* sheep, and three or four hundred thousand of the large grey Roman oxen. In the summer, these plains become too hot and unhealthy for the herds, and they are driven off to the mountains, to graze on the green pastures of the Sabian hills and the high grounds around the city, where they feed in safety till the season of malaria is past. But the horses on which the herdsmen ride, are turned loose among the morasses, to take care of themselves. They feed with perfect impunity on the unhealthiest tracts. I have seen them almost to their backs in swamps, feeding with the half wild buffaloes and swine, that are equally impervious to the climate. In this savage state they run about till autumn, when they are again caught, rode over the Campagna, fit companions for their wild looking riders. The crops are raised during summer, when the herds are among the hills, and the harvest is gathered in by the mountaineers, who dwell on the Volscian hills and the more elevated land towards the frontier of Naples.

At this time the heat is intense, and would make even the slave of a cotton plantation wince. The poor peasantry, who have been accustomed from their infancy to the fresh mountain breezes and clear running streams of their native home, lured by the prospect of gaining a few pauls to support their families during the approaching winter, descend into the plains, to gather in the harvest. Then the slaughter commences, and does not end till harvest is over, and often not even then. The malaria seizes the hardy mountaineer as its lawful prey, and hurries him with fearful rapidity into the grave. Unaccustomed to the scorching sun that beats on these plains, he finds himself at night exhausted and feeble. Inured to toil, and delving among his native hills from morning till night, he wonders at his weariness. Without a hut to shelter him, he flings his complaining limbs on the damp earth, as he has often flung them on the mountain side, expecting the morning will find him fresh and vigorous as ever. But ere slumber has wrapped his weary form, the pestilential vapors begin to steam up from the noxious earth, and noiselessly embrace their unconscious victim. In the morning, he who has felt all his life long his blood leap in his veins like his native torrents, now feels it creeping heavy and hot through his depressed system. Ignorant of his danger, or the cause of his ills, he renews his task, and again staggers on under a burning sun, and lies down again to sleep on the moist earth, in the embrace of his foe. The next day the poor fellow toils with hotter brain and a wilder pulse, and flings himself at night on the cool earth, from which he will never rise again to his task. Thus, while the scanty harvest of grain is gathered in, the malaria has been reaping its richer harvest of men. Not scores and fifties, but *hundreds* are thus left every summer on the Roman Campagna, while the wives and children they hoped to feed by their industry, look in vain from their mountain homes for their coming, and turn to meet the winter with blasted hopes. Oh, what haggard faces, miserable forms, have I seen peep out from the low mud huts on the outskirts of this desolate region. Many that have dragged out the harvest season, come to the frontier, hoping to recover; but the seeds of death are too deeply implanted, and they slowly waste away. In the more cultivated parts, grass and grain are grown alternately on the same land; but here on the Campagna, they raise only one crop of grain in four years; the intermediate time it is left for grazing.

In closing up this article, I cannot but notice the contrast this country presents to its former greatness, and to my own beloved land. When the Cæsars owned these palace and temple-covered plains, and their haughty legions thundered over them—who would have believed that the time would ever come when nought but a few solitary herdsmen would gallop across them; or, stranger still, that a then unbroken forest, beyond the unknown ocean, would be a fruitful field, and its crowded population look with pity on Roman desolation. The mightiest empire the world ever saw, and an untrod forest, stood on the same earth together. The mighty empire has become a desolate province, while the wilderness has become greater than an empire. Rome, the mistress of the world, rules now a territory less than the state of New York. The eagle that soared over the imperial city, has left it and her battling armies, and now sails with our commerce. Men flock to her to see *fading* glory—to our shores to behold *rising* glory. Not merely the "schoolmaster," but the *merchant* "is abroad," laying his hand on objects and places the poet and scholar have

long considered holy. Institutions and structures honored by time and great names, are no longer sacred to him. The scholar may complain, and the enthusiast weep—it matters not. The spirit and the power are abroad, and there is no resisting either. The old Roman Forum is turned into a rope-walk, to make ropes and cordage for commerce, and the Theatridium of the Baths of Diocletian, is converted into a cotton-mill. We should not wonder to see yet over the Coliseum, in large capitals, "American Storehouse," and on Adrian's Tomb, that stands by the Tiber, "Storage and Forwarding House." Rome will have other "Mercanti" besides "Mercanti di Campagna," and the sound of enginery and the noise of commerce be heard in the palace of the Cæsars. H.

Art. II.—COMMERCE AND RESOURCES OF MEXICO.*

TERRITORY.—POPULATION AND DEPARTMENTS.

According to the best authorities, the territory of the Mexican republic contains an area of 1,650,000 square miles, and the United States of America 2,300,000. If we allow, as is calculated, that the square mile will maintain, under ordinary careful cultivation, a population of 200 persons, we shall have the sum of 330,000,000 for the total ultimate capability of the Mexican soil, and 460,000,000 for the United States,—or, 130,000,000 less in Mexico than in our Union.

It may be well for us to continue this comparative statement somewhat further. In the year—

1753, our pop. was estimated at	1,051,000	1820, our pop. was estimated at	9,638,131
1790, " "	3,929,827	1830, " "	12,854,880
1800, " "	5,305,925	1840, " "	17,069,453
1810, " "	7,239,814		

In 1793, according to the report made to the king of Spain by Conde de Revellagigedo, the population of New Spain, exclusive of the Intendencies of Vera Cruz and Guadalaxara, was as follows:—

Indians,	2,319,741
Europeans,	7,904
White Creoles,	677,458
Different castes,	1,478,426
	4,483,529
To which add the population of Vera Cruz and Guadalaxara, according to the estimate of 1803,	786,500
Total population in 1793,	5,270,029

The Baron Humboldt estimates it to have been, in the year 1803, 5,837,100; and Mr. Poinsett, in 1824, (from the best data of the period,) 6,500,000.

In 1830, Mr. Burkhardt, an accurate German traveller, rates the several classes of Mexicans thus:—

Indians,	4,500,000	Mestizos, and other castes,	2,490,000
Whites,	1,000,000		
Negroes,	6,000	Total,	7,996,000

* Mexico as it Was and as it Is. By Brantz Mayer, Secretary of the United States Legation to that country in 1841 and 1842. New York: J. Winchester. 1844.

Another estimate, in 1839, reduces the sum to 7,065,000, and gives *eight inhabitants to the square mile;* but the most complete, and, probably, the most accurate of the recent calculations, is the one which was made by the government itself, (without special enumeration,) and served as a basis for the call of a Congress to form a new constitution, under the plan of Tacubaya in 1842:—

Departments.	Population.	Departments.	Population.
Mexico,	1,389,520	Chiapas,	141,206
Jalisco,	679,311	Sonora,	124,000
Puebla,	661,902	Queretazo,	120,560
Yucatan,	580,948	Nuevo Leon,	101,108
Guanajuato,	512,606	Tamaulipas,	100,068
Oajaca,	500,278	Coahuila,	75,340
Michoacan,	497,906	Aguas Calientes,	69,698
San Luis Potosi,	321,840	Tabasco,	63,580
Zacatecas,	273,575	Nuevo Mexico,	57,026
Vera Cruz,	254,380	Californias,	33,439
Durango,	162,618		
Chihuahua,	147,600	Total, in 1842,	7,015,509
Sinaloa,	147,000		

Since the year 1830, the population of the republic has been dreadfully ravaged by smallpox, measles and cholera. In the capital alone, it is estimated that about 5,000 died of the first named of these diseases, 2,000 of the second, and from 15,000 to 20,000 of the third. The mortality must have been in a corresponding ratio throughout the territory.

I am, however, by no means satisfied that the estimates of both Poinsett and Burkhardt are not too high; yet, assuming the statements of 1842 and of 1793 to be nearly accurate, we find in forty-nine years an increase of only 1,774,111 in the entire population. Again, if we assume the population to have been 6,000,000 in 1824, (the year, in fact, of the establishment of the republic,) we find that, in the course of eighteen years of liberty and independence, the increase has not been greater than 1,044,140.

In the United States of America, with only 650,000 more of square miles of territory *now*, and not so large a space at the achievement of our independence, the increase of our population during the first twenty years of freedom cannot have been less than two millions and a half; while, in the course of the last thirty years, it has averaged an increase of rather more than 33 per cent every ten.

The several castes and classes of Mexicans may be rated in the following manner:—

Indians,	4,000,000
Whites,	1,000,000
Negroes,	6,000
All other castes, such as zambos, mestizos, mulattoes, &c.,	2,009,509
Total,	7,015,509

It appears, therefore, that the Indians and negroes amount to 4,006,000. and the whites, and all other castes, to 3,009,509. A very respectable and aged resident of Mexico, who is remarkable for the extent and accuracy of his observations, estimates that, of the former, (or negroes and Indians,) but 2 per cent can read and write; while of the latter, at a liberal estimate, but about 20 per cent.

If we take this computation to be correct, as I believe from my own ob-

servation it is, and using the estimate of the decree of 1842 for the basis of the population, we shall have :—

Of Indians and negroes who can read,.....	80,120
Whites and all others,.....	607,628
Total able to read and write out of a population of 7,000,000,.	687,748

This would appear to be a startling fact in a republic the basis of whose safety is the capacity of the people for an intellectual self-government. Let us, however, carry this calculation a little farther. If we suppose that out of the 1,000,000 of *whites*, 500,000, or the half only, are *males*, and of that 500,000, but 20 per cent, or but 100,000 can read and write, we will no longer be surprised that a population of more than 7,000,000 has been hitherto controlled by a handful of men ; or that, with the small means of improvement afforded to the few who can read, the selfish natures of the superior classes, who wield the physical and intellectual forces of the nation, have forced the masses to become little more than the slaves of those whose wit gives them the talent of control.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES OF MEXICO.

The commerce of Mexico has been sensibly diminishing for the last ten years. This is attributable to the continual revolutionary disturbances of the country, the decrease of the wealth of the people, and the pecuniary embarrassments to which most of the inhabitants have been subjected, by the non-payment of government loans and unfortunate investments.

In 1832 and 1833, the products of the custom-house amounted to about $12,000,000 per annum. In 1839, on account of the French blockade, they fell to near $3,000,000 ; in 1840, they rose again to $7,000,000 ; and, in the following year, fell to little more than $5,000,000, which sum may be divided among the different ports, as follows :—

Vera Cruz,.....	$3,329,802	Monterey,.....	$96,853
Tampico,.....	883,039	Acapulco,.....	17,182
Matamoras,.....	312,403	San Blas,.....	208,845
Marattan,.....	383,159		
Guyamas,.....	55,814	Total,.....	$5,287,097

This corresponds to about $12,300,000 of importation annually, divided (according to an estimate) in the following manner :—

From England,.....	$4,500,000	From Spain,.....	$500,000
" France,.....	3,000,000	" Genoa, and other p'rts,	1,000,000
" Hamburg,.....	1,500,000		
" China,.....	1,000,000	Total,.....	$12,300,000
" United States,.....	800,000		

The expense to the government, for the collection of this revenue, was $348,290.

The exports from the republic (chiefly, of course, of its own productions) may be rated at—

Precious metals—Specie, through Vera Cruz,.....	$4,000,000
" " " Mazatlan and San Blas,	2,500,000
" Silver and gold, through other ports,....	5,000,000
" " through Tampico,.....	7,000,000
Cochineal, jalap, vanilla, sarsaparilla, and hides,.....	1,000,000
Sundries,.....	500,000
Total,.....	$20,000,000

From this estimate, it will be seen that about $18,500,000, *in the precious metals*, are exported annually from Mexico. The mines produce near $22,000,000 of silver, of which it is calculated that $12,000,000 are coined in the seven mints of the republic, *per annum*.

From the above calculations, it will be observed that there is a difference of about $8,000,000 between the *imports and exports*, a large portion of which is estimated to be covered by *smuggling*.

The following comparative estimate of the exports and imports of the United States and of Mexico, for the years 1841 and 1842, cannot fail to be interesting in this connection, especially when we take into consideration the comparative extent of territory and population:—

Exports from Mexico, in 1842,		$20,000,000
Of which, in gold and silver,		18,500,000
Balance, in other products of industry,		$1,500,000
Excess of imports over the industrial exports, exclusive of the precious metals,		$10,500,000
Imports of the United States, in 1841–42,		$99,357,329
Exports from " "		104,117,969
Difference,		$4,760,640
Exports of gold and silver,		$9,805,235
Of which was the produce of U. S. mines,	$2,746,486	
" " foreign gold,	677,297	
" " foreign silver,	6,381,452	
Total,	$9,805,235	
Whole exports from the United States,		$104,117,969
Deduct exports of the precious metals,		9,805,235
Total,		$94,312,734

Or, in other words, the United States exported $94,312,734 worth, representing her industry, (exclusive of gold and silver,) while Mexico, with a territory nearly as large, exported but $1,500,000. In addition to this, it must be recollected that but $2,746,846 of the precious metals were the product of our own country, while at least $15,000,000 were the product of the Mexican mines; leaving an excess of nearly $3,000,000 above the total annual coinage of the nation.

Whole exports for, say 8,000,000 people,	$20,000,000
" " " 17,000,000 "	104,117,969

This will give us the ratio of about $6 12½ for each person in the United States, and $2 50 for each person in Mexico.

In order to afford some idea of Mexican commerce more in detail, (so far as the eastern coast is concerned,) we have constructed the following table, the accuracy of which may be confidently relied on. In regard to the western coast, it is impossible to state anything with certainty. The chief contraband trade of the republic has been carried on there with the most unblushing audacity, until very recently; and, of course, statistical returns will tend rather to deceive than enlighten.

COMMERCE OF THE PORT OF VERA CRUZ.

	One Year. From 1st Jan. to 31st Dec., 1841.		*Six Months.* From 1st Jan., 1842, to 1st July.	
	Entries.	*Departures.*	*Entries.*	*Departures.*
American,	39	37	19	19
English,	45	42	26	21
French,	31	33	13	17
Spanish,	36	35	12	15
Hamburg,	5	5	3	4
Danish,	5	4	1	1
Belgian,	3	3	1	0
Bremen,	4	4	1	1
Prussian,	2	2	2	0
Sardinian,	4	5	2	2
Colombian,	5	5	2	3
Mexican,	37	43	20	26
Total,	216	218	102	109

Passengers in 1841,	1,109
Immigrants,	459
Increase of population,	614

AMERICAN AND FOREIGN TRADE WITH TAMPICO, FROM 1ST JAN. TO 31ST DECEMBER, 1841.

	Arrivals.				*Departures.*			
Nation.	No. of vess.	Tons.	No. of crew.	Val. of invoice in £'s sterling.	No. of vess.	Tons.	No. of crew.	Value of invoice in £'s sterling.
United States,	24	2,572	108	£49,025 8-2	24	2,437	155	£119,840 5-2
British men-of-war and packets,	19	.....	....	66,735	19	.....	....	1,120,397
Br. merchantmen,	9	1,041	70	215,900	8	951	62	4,800
Mexican,	18	864	120	14,800	18	885	123	3,960
Hanseatic,	4	592	42	83,000	3	462	32	35,000
French,	6	690	65	64,300	10	1,290	110	40,000
Spanish,	9	1,004	89	26,000	7	786	70	2,000
Sardinian,	1	110	9	6,000	1	110	9	600
Danish,	1	62	5	1,200	1	62	5	.....
Total,	91	6,935	568	£526,960 8-2	91	6,983	567	£1,326,597 5-2

N. B.—The pound sterling is valued at five dollars United States currency.

AMERICAN AND FOREIGN TRADE WITH TAMPICO, FROM 1ST JANUARY TO 31ST JUNE, 1842.

	Arrivals.				*Departures.*			
Nation.	No. of vessels.	Tons.	No. of crew.	Invoice value of cargo.	No. of vessels.	Tons.	No. of crew.	Invoice value of cargo.
American,	15	1,277	91	$43,320	13	1,092	83	$171,980
British men-of-war and packets,	14	.....	...	269,953	14	.....	...	2,845,240
Br. merchantmen,	8	1,270	62	310,000	5	687	39	7,125
Mexican,	20	976	142	58,000	17	983	119	8,250
Hanseatic,	2	260	19	105,000	2	260	19	5,000
French,	4	497	35	200,000	5	541	44	175,000
Spanish,	2	194	22	45,000	4	402	37	4,000
Sardinian,	1	136	7	25,000	1	136	7	3,000
Colombian,	1	57	10	6,000	1	57	10	4,000
Total,	67	4,667	338	$1,062,245	62	4,158	358	$3,223,505

N. B.—The importation in British vessels and royal mail steamers, is entirely quicksilver.

TRADE WITH MATAMORAS—1841.

The whole trade of 1841 was carried on in vessels from the United States—Vessels, 32; tonnage, 2,345.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

Specie,	$352,766 87	Horses and mules,	$800 00
Hides,	117,334 00		
Wool,	15,943 00	Total,	$486,834 87

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Countries where manufact'd.	Silks.	Woollens.	Cottons.	Linens.	Ironware and machinery.	Paper.	Jewelry.	Sundries.	Total.
Germany,	.....	.....	$2,051	$40,947	.....	.....	.....	$246	$43,244
England,	$1,040	$25,046	146,280	23,768	$3,921	.....	.....	3,140	203,195
Spain,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8,060	8,060
U. States,	.....	.....	25,640	.....	15,120	.....	.....	66,140	106,900
France,	2,340	4,148	31,480	.....	270	$1,680	$452	5,334	52,301
Havana,	.....	.....	.....	6,597	.....	.....	.....	13,245	13,245
Tot. val.,	$3,380	$29,194	$205,451	$71,312	$19,311	$1,680	$452	$96,165	$426,945

It may be well for us to take heed of the gradual decline of *our* commerce with Mexico, which has diminished to almost utter insignificance. I am not merchant enough to divine what are the commercial causes of this state of things; but I can readily imagine, that, in connection with the general difficulties of the country, our trade has been seriously affected by the part which our citizens have taken, or are alleged to have taken, in the insurrectionary movements of Texas. The rebellion in that province, the union of a portion of North Americans with its armies, and the sympathy of many others, expressed in a manner which I believe to be both unwise and illegal, have caused our people to be unpopular throughout the republic, and have made the authorities averse to exhibiting that strict justice in our personal and commercial rights which should characterize the intercourse of friendly nations. Our citizens have been imprisoned in Mexico on frivolous pretences. Forced loans have been wrested from our merchants. Tribunals have been deaf to demands for restitution, and a mutual distrust has arisen, which has proved fatal in many instances to trade and intercourse. The effects of this will, however, be most strikingly exhibited in the following table, compiled chiefly from the reports of the secretary of our national treasury :—

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO.

For the year ending 30th September, 1823, the imports and exports to Mexico, and South America, generally, were as follows :—

Imports,	$4,842,503
Exports,	3,229,343
	$1,613,160 balance in our favor.
Of these imports,	$1,950,416 were in specie and bullion.

TRADE WITH MEXICO FOR TWELVE YEARS.

Yr. ending 30th Sept.	Imports from Mexico.	Exports to Mexico.	Yr. ending 30th Sept.	Imports from Mexico.	Exports to Mexico.
1829,	$5,026,761	$2,331,151	1836,	$5,615,819	$6,041,635
1830,	5,235,241	4,837,458	1837,	5,654,002	3,880,323
1832,	4,293,954	3,467,541	1838,	3,127,153	2,787,362
1833,	5,452,818	5,408,091	1839,	3,500,707	2,164,097
1834,	8,066,068	5,265,053	1840,	4,175,001	2,515,341
1835,	9,490,446	9,029,221	1841,	3,284,957	2,036,620

GOLD AND SILVER IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM MEXICO.

		Bullion.	Specie.
South America and Mexico, in	1823,	$121,970	$1,828,446
From Mexico,	1836,	68,546	4,468,872
"	1837,	165,429	4,405,549
"	1838,	230,183	2,459,243
"	1840,	100,976	3,357,936
"	1841,	51,184	1,886,918

By this, it will be observed that, from having a trade worth upward of $9,000,000 in 1835, we have been reduced to a comparatively insignificant commerce of $1,000,000, at the extreme, in 1843! If peace be restored in Mexico and mutual confidence re-established, we can see no cause why our interests may not become replaced on their ancient basis, and a natural alliance firmly established between the two sister republics, who, in addition to a community of political tendencies, are the closest neighbors.

England has striven for a twofold object in Mexico. She has always looked to her debt from that country as the great means of affecting her commerce and manufactures, and ultimately, perhaps, of affording her a claim for its satisfaction in territory. If our government was always careful to have herself properly represented in that republic by vigilant persons, whose eyes were constantly open to the encroachments of foreign powers, and especially to the grasping tendencies of England; and if, at the same time, it took occasion, upon every fitting opportunity, to sustain the rights of our citizens by enforcing the reasonable and friendly appeals of its representative, in a few years, Mexico would awake from the spell of her foreign delusions, and remember the hand that was first stretched forth to welcome her into the family of independent nations. She would have every reason to do so. The political feelings of the mass of her intelligent men are decidedly republican. Her own independence would be assured to her. The constant alliance of the United States would protect her in the event of a hostile foot being set upon her shores. She would secure the integrity of this continent, and free her people from the dangers that menace them from abroad, whenever a minister is obliged to dun her for her debts, or threaten her with the "last argument" known to diplomats and nations.

A favorite mode of raising loans in Mexico, for the benefit of government, has been that of granting permits to merchants (chiefly Englishmen) to introduce *cotton twist* into the republic. This is a prohibited article—prohibited for the purpose of cherishing the manufacturing establishments of the country. That these have progressed to a very considerable extent, *and have entirely outstripped the production of the cotton planters of Mexico*, will be seen by the annexed table, which I have obtained from the most authentic sources:—

STATISTICS OF MEXICAN MANUFACTURES.

	No. of Factories in each Department.	Spindles established.	Spindles in erection.	Total.
In Mexico,	12	30,156	.....	30,156
Puebla,	21	35,672	12,240	47,912
Vera Cruz,	7	17,860	5,200	23,060
Guadalaxara,	5	11,312	6,500	17,812
Queretaro,	2	7,620	.....	7,620
Durango,	4	2,520	.....	2,520
Guanajuato,	1	1,200	.....	1,200
Sonora,	1	1,000	.....	1,000
Total,	53	107,340	23,940	131,280

It must be remarked that there are *three* manufacturing establishments in the department of Durango, the number of spindles in which are not included in the preceding table, because the *Junta de Industria* had not received very definite information respecting them. They may, however, be calculated at about 4,000, which, added to the 131,280, will give a grand total of 135,000, *at least*. The number of *looms*, also, in the republic is not presented, because *data* have been furnished only in relation to those moved by machinery. An immense number of *hand-looms* are in constant occupation throughout the republic.

	Pounds.	Dollars.
I.		
The cotton factories of the republic consume, *daily*, with the 107,340 spindles in actual operation,.....	39,755	
Which produce, in spun thread, at the rate of one-third of a pound for each spindle,.....	35,780	
Which, converted into *mantas* and *rebosos*, have a value of...		39,358
II.		
The same factories, after the 23,940 spindles in erection are in operation, will consume, *daily*,.....	48,622	
Each spindle will produce, of thread, ...	43,760	
Which, converted as aforesaid, will amount in value to.....		48,037
III.		
The consumption of cotton in the year, of three hundred working days, with 131,280 spindles, will be.....	14,586,666	
The produce in thread,.....	13,138,000	
The produce in manufactured value, as above,.....		14,440,800
IV.		
The 131,280 spindles, working day and night, will consume...	24,797,332	
Produce in thread,.....	22,317,600	
Produce in manufactured value, as above,.....		24,549,360
V.		
The 131,280 spindles will occupy, (working only by day,)....	8,753 looms.	
" " " (working day and night,).	14,880 "	
Number of operatives employed by day,.....	17,000	
" " " day and night,.....	29,000	
VI.		
It will require for the 131,280 spindles working *by day*,.....	145,666⅔ qtls. cotton.	
The produce of the country, at the utmost, is not more than.	50,000 "	
Leaving a deficit of.....	95,666⅔ "	
* But if the spindles work *day and night*, they will require..	247,973½ "	
Produce of the country, as above,.....	50,000 "	
Leaving a deficit of.....	197,973½ quintals.	

The value of the Mexican manufacturing establishments may be stated, in round numbers, at $10,000,000.

Hitherto the cotton crop of the republic has not greatly exceeded 50,000 quintals; which, calculated at a mean of $35 the quintal, will give a total valuation of the produce at $1,750,000. The estimate we have present-

* At the town of Lowell, alone, they make nearly a *million and a quarter* yards of cotton cloth per week, employ about 9,000 operatives, (6,375 females,) and use 433,000 lbs. of raw cotton per week. The annual amount of raw cotton used is 22,568,000 lbs., enough to load 50 ships of 350 tons each; and of cotton manufactured, 70,275,910 yards. 100 lbs. of cotton will produce 89 yards of cloth.

ed in the foregoing tables shows, however, that the spindles, *working day and night*, will require 247,937½ quintals, or, in other words, that there is a deficit of 197,973½, which, valued at the same rate, will amount to $6,929,072.

It is true, that many persons have been induced by this condition of the market, and the prohibition of importing the raw material, to commence plantations of cotton; but we doubt whether the habits of the agricultural population will permit their prosperity. They dislike to adventure in new branches of industry. If their ancestors wrought on cotton plantations, they are content to continue in the same employment; but it will be difficult to train the new laborer to the newer cultivation. They adhere too closely to traditional occupations, and I have heard of some most signal failures, which have forced persons to abandon their establishments, after a considerable outlay of money in land and implements.

Under these circumstances, we may well ask our countrymen whether Mexico might not be looked to as a market for a portion of our crops, and if the government should not be required to turn its attention to this vast interest, for the purpose of attempting to obtain a removal of the inhibitions on that valuable article of commerce. If England were a cotton-growing country, or had an adjacent colony producing it, I am confident that the opportunity would be promptly and advantageously improved. Under any circumstances it is worth the trial; and, especially, at this moment, when Great Britain is interfering in the quarrel between Mexico and Texas, and seeking either to produce a peace or to form an alliance with the revolted province, which will either extinguish slavery and cotton planting, or make Mexico the buyer of her offspring's productions, to the detriment of our Union.

The cotton crop of Mexico has been very variable in value. At Tepic, on the west coast, it has been as low as $15 the quintal; at Vera Cruz, on the east coast, $22 and $34; while at Puebla and in the capital, it has risen to $40, and even $48.

In spite of all the efforts of English capitalists and diplomacy, the government has steadily persevered in fostering the manufactures of the republic, except by the occasional allowances of the importation of *twist*. The administration of Santa Anna, however, has been energetic, I am informed, both in its opposition to the introduction of this article, and in its effects to suppress the smuggling of English and American fabrics. The manufacturers, therefore, regard their establishments as perfectly safe, and their future success as certain.

The average price of *mantas* (cotton cloth,) of one *vara* width, in 1842, was about 25 cents the *vara;* and of *twist*, No. 12 to 22, about 75 cents the pound. It was estimated that, if cotton fell in consequence of importations being allowed, or a large crop, to $25 the quintal, these articles would be reduced to 18¾ cents the *vara* for the first, and to 50 cents the pound for the second. This condition of the market would prevent all importations from abroad, even aided by smuggling.

An intelligent merchant of the city of Mexico, who has resided long in the country, and has an extensive acquaintance in the republic, informs me that there are about 5,000 hand-looms throughout the departments, which will work up all the spun yarn into *mantas* and *rebosos* as fast as it can be made. Many of these looms are entirely employed in the manufacture of the common rebosos, the consumption of which is so great

among the poorer classes. The value of these looms is estimated at between 6,000,000 and $7,000,000. The number of persons employed, in every way, in manufactures, cannot be much short of 30,000.

The power made use of for the movement of the factories is water; which is abundant, for that purpose, all over the country, proceeding from small streams falling from the mountains into the neighboring plains or barrancas. Owing to the scarcity of wood, and the costliness of its transportation, steam cannot be advantageously applied.

There are several manufactories of cotton balls, or thread, in Mexico, but they are not of very great importance.

Paper factories are working with considerable success. There are two near the capital, one at Puebla, and one in Guadalaxara. Their productions are very good, but by no means adequate to the consumption of the country. The quantity of this article used for *cigarritos*, or paper cigars, is inconceivable. The best coarse wrapping or envelope paper, I have ever seen, is made in Mexico from the leaves of the Agave Americana, the plant which yields "pulque." It has almost the toughness and tenacity of iron.

Both at Puebla and Mexico there are several glass factories, making large quantities of the material for windows, and common tumblers. Their produce is, nevertheless, insufficient for the wants of the country.

Woollen blankets, and some very coarse woollen cloths or *baizes*, are also manufactured in the republic. The blankets are often of beautiful texture, and woven, with the gayest colors and patterns, into a garment that frequently costs a fashionable cavalier from two to five hundred dollars. As this is as indispensable an article for the comfort of a lépero as of a gentleman, and as necessary for a man as a reboso is for a woman, you may readily imagine how great is the consumption.

Such is a sketch of this branch of industry, to which the government and people seem to have devoted themselves with a hearty will. We have dwelt at considerable length upon it, as evincing an energy and temper not usually attributed to Mexicans, and for the purpose of exhibiting a phase of character at once creditable to their resolution, and manifesting a degree of independence and thriftiness worthy of imitation.

THE REVENUE AND RESOURCES OF MEXICO.

The income of the Mexican government is derived from revenues on foreign commerce, imposts on internal trade, imposts on pulque, export duty on the precious metals, lotteries, post-office, stamped paper, taxes, tobacco, powder, salt-works, and several other sources of trifling importance.

In 1840, these revenues are stated in the report of the minister of the treasury as follows:—

NETT PROCEEDS, AFTER DEDUCTING EXPENSE OF COLLECTION.

Imposts on foreign commerce,...	$7,115,849	Extraordinary subsidy,.....	$103
" interior " ...	4,306,585	Arbitrio estraordinario,.....	78,177
" property, income, &c.	466,061	Capitacion,.....	483
Exchanges, &c.,.....	307,427	Donations,.....	13,662
Creditos Activós,.....	3,309		
Balances of accounts,.....	355	Total,.....	$12,744,157
Enteros de productos liquidos,...	452,146		

In 1839, the revenues amounted to $11,215,848. The income from

the post-office department (which is not included in the statement for 1840) was $178,738, in 1839. In 1840, the lotteries produced the gross sum of $215,437; but, as the expenses connected with their management amounted to $158,485, it left a balance of but $56,952 for the government. The "*sealed paper*," or stamp tax, produced $110,863, but as this impost has been nearly doubled during 1842, the revenue must at present be proportionally greater.

We have been unable to obtain any of the official documents of 1841 and 1842, (in consequence of the disturbed condition of the country,) with the exception of the custom-house returns for the former year :—

Custom-houses.		Tonnage duty.	Nett proceeds after deducting costs of collection.
East Coast—	Vera Cruz,.....	$31,032	$3,374,528
"	Tampico,.....	7,363	1,019,046
"	Matamoras,.....	3,525	279,627
West Coast—	Mazatlan, ...	6,245	397,213
"	Guyamas, ...	2,092	46,189
"	Monterey,.....	810	85,982
"	Acapulco, ...	573	7,193
"	San Blas,.....	2,719	190,270
Total,.....		$55,259	$5,399,948

It will be perceived that the custom-houses of Tabasco, Campeche, Sisal, Isla de Carmen, and Bacalar, are not included in the preceding statement, in consequence of the separation of the first (during the period) from her allegiance to the republic, and on account of the rebellious condition of the rest. At the date of the statement, reports from Goatzacoalco, Alvarado, Tuxpan, Huatulco, Manzanillo, La Paz, Pueblo Viejo, Altata, Loreto, San Diego, San Francisco, Soto la Marina, and from the frontier posts of Paso del Norte, Comitan, Tonala, Santa Fe de N. Mexico, y Presidio del Norte, had not been yet received at the treasury office in the capital. The costs of the collection of this revenue amounted to $52,886, and the salaries of officers to $295,404.

I regret that I was unable to obtain any very accurate date of the Santa Fe trade, which, under judicious management, might no doubt be very advantageously conducted for the interest of both countries. In the present distracted state, however, of Texas and the northern provinces of Mexico, little is to be hoped, until better feelings and better regulations are firmly established. Santa Fe and Chihuahua divide the trade; the latter, since the year 1831. The subjoined rough estimate has been given me of the value of our trade at both places since that period :—

Years.	Total cost.	Taken to Chihuahua.	Men.	Wages.	Years.	Total cost.	Taken to Chihuahua.	Men.	Wages.
1831,	$250,000	$40,000	320	130	1837,	$150,000	$75,000	150	80
1832,	150,000	45,000	150	80	1838,	90,000	50,000	100	50
1833,	145,000	50,000	140	75	1839,	260,000	150,000	250	135
1834,	160,000	60,000	160	80	1840,	50,000	10,000	60	30
1835,	135,000	55,000	140	70	1841,	100,000	50,000	150	80
1836,	122,000	55,000	120	60	1842,	200,000	60,000	200	120

No one who has resided any length of time in Mexico, either connected or unconnected with commerce, can fail to have heard of the extent to which smuggling has been and still is carried on in the republic. This infamous system, alike destructive of private morals and public integrity, has become a regular business in portions of the country; and, after hav-

ing been, to a great extent, suppressed on the eastern coast, has for several years occupied the attention of numbers on the west. Mr. McClure calculated that the republic possesses "a frontier of five thousand miles, including the sinuosities, windings, and turnings of bays, gulfs and rivers on the Pacific; 3,000 miles on the United States of America and Texas; and above 2,500 on the Gulf of Mexico; making, in all, 10,500 miles of frontier to guard against illicit trade, *without an individual on the one thousand two hundredth part of the space to give notice of any depredations that may happen.*"

Now, although the estimate of this philanthropist may appear rather fanciful, when we remember that, wherever there are smugglers to *introduce*, it is probable that there are individuals to *receive*, and consequently that the government *might* be protected; still it is undeniable that the territory is vast, the population sparse, and the corruption of government agents has been as shameful as it was notorious.

NATIONAL DEBT.

The national debt of Mexico is one of very considerable importance, and may be divided into the two great classes of Foreign and Internal debt.

The internal debt amounts to $18,550,000; and in 1841 the customs were mortgaged to pay this sum, in the following subdivisions:—

17	per cent of the customs devoted to a debt of.....	$2,040,000
15	" " " " "	410,000
12	" " " " "	2,100,000
10	" " " " "	3,100,000
8	" " " " "	1,200,000
10	" " " " tobacco fund debt,.....	9,700,000
16⅔	" " " " interest on English debt,.	.....
10	" " " " garrison fund,.....	.....
98⅔		$18,550,000
1⅓	balance, clear of lien, for the government.	
100		

The foreign debt is still larger than this; and (including the above) I will state the entire national responsibility, as it existed at the end of last year:—

Internal debt,.....	$18,550,000	Claims for Hilazo,.....	$700,000
Debt to English creditors,...	60,000,000	Bustamente loan,.....	500,000
U. S. claims and interest, say	2,400,000		
Copper to be redeemed,.....	2,000,000	Total,.....	$84,150,000

Until 1841, the whole of the revenue, except 11⅓ per cent, was appropriated to the payment of $18,550,000, while the remaining claims were entirely unprotected by securities. Shortly after the accession of Santa Anna to power, he *suspended* (by a decree of the 16th of February) the payment of the first five funds charged upon the customs, as stated in a preceding table, but reserved the *active appropriation* for the tobacco and *English interest debts*. This, as may be well imagined, created great dissatisfaction among the mercantile classes, and among numbers of persons who had invested their capital in government loans, with a reliance upon the *revenues* as a solemn pledge for their redemption. Santa Anna, however, withstood the torrent manfully. He was assailed by legations, newspapers, and individuals, but nothing could induce him to yield the pressing wants of the government to their importunities. He was, in fact, forced to the measure. The national credit was irremediably impaired,

and he found it impossible to obtain loans. The consequence was, the seizure of the customs, by the *suspension* of their prior appropriation, until he was enabled to relieve his treasury.

Independently of the English and American debt, the claims upon the Mexican government have usually been created by means of loans of the most usurious character. In order to illustrate this system, and to show the enormous rates at which lenders endeavored to assure themselves against loss by depreciation, I will recount some transactions which were partly effected in 1841.

On the 20th of September, fifteen days before the treaty of Estansuela, the administration of President Bustamante offered the following terms for a loan of $1,200,000. It proposed to receive the sum of $200,000 in *cash*, and $1,000,000 represented in the *paper or credits* of the government. These credits or paper were worth, in the market, nine per cent. About one-half of the loan was taken, and the parties obtained orders on the several maritime custom-houses, receivable in payment of duties.

The revenues of the custom-house of Matamoras have been always hitherto appropriated to pay the army on the northern frontier of the republic. During the administration of General Bustamante, the commandant of Matamoras issued bonds or drafts against the custom-house for $150,000, receivable for all kinds of duties as cash. He disposed of these bonds to the merchants of that port for $100,000; and, in addition to the *bonus* of $50,000, allowed them interest on the $100,000 at the rate of 3 per cent per month, until they had duties to pay, which they could extinguish by the drafts.

Another transaction, of a similar nature, developes the character of the government's negotiations, and can only be accounted for by the receipt of some advantages which the act itself does not disclose to the public.

The mint at Guanajuato, or the right to coin at that place, was contracted for, in 1742, by a most respectable foreign house in Mexico, for $71,000 *cash*, for the term of *fourteen years*, at the same time that another offer was before the government, stipulating for the payment of $400,000 for the same period, payable in annual instalments of $25,000 each. The $71,000 in hand, were, however, deemed of more value than the prospective $400,000! This mint leaves a nett annual income of $60,000!

With such a spendthrift abandonment of the resources of the country, continued, for a series of years, in the midst of the pressure of foreign claims and domestic warfare, it is, indeed, wonderful that Mexico has so long survived the ruin which must inevitably overtake her with a debt of $84,000,000, and an annual expenditure (as will be seen from the succeeding statement) of $13,000,000, independent of payment of interest, balances, and loans. Yet with all these incumbrances, created under the most usurious exactions, it is greatly to her honor that she has not *repudiated* the claims of her creditors;—a moral and political firmness in which she may well be emulated by some of those very states that have been loudest in their thoughtless abuse of a sister republic.

A late Mexican paper states that the minister of the treasury of Mexico has published a decree, by which the president directs 25 per cent of all the receipts of the custom-houses of the republic to be set apart as a "*sinking fund*," to pay the public debt. This fund is to be inviolable. The decree provides for the *consolidation and funding* of the debt at the

rate of a 6 per cent stock, for which it will be exchanged by such as choose. Those who do not embrace this arrangement with the government are to have their claims liquidated, only, *when out of the sinking fund now created, those who accede to the exchange of stock shall have been first of all paid!*

If we exclude the American debt, now in the course of payment, (an exclusion nevertheless improper, as the government has but changed her responsibility from a foreign creditor to a domestic one,) the debt of Mexico may still be fairly estimated at $82,000,000, which, at 6 per cent, bears an annual interest of $4,920,000. The actual income from customs *and all resources* may be set down at $13,000,000—25 per cent on which will produce a fund of $3,250,000, or $1,670,000 *less than the interest on the whole debt!* It may well be asked, whence is to proceed the "*sinking fund*," so long as such a deficiency exists?

The entire expenses of the Mexican government for 1840, including the supreme powers, diplomacy, treasury, judiciary, political, ecclesiastical, instruction, benevolence, punishment, salaries of various officers of palace, rents, pensions, &c., war-office, dividends on foreign debt, amounted to $13,155,922.

MINES AND COINAGE OF MEXICO.

In treating of the resources of men and money of Mexico, it will not be uninteresting (after knowing that the production of the mines amounts in value annually to about twenty-two millions, of which twelve find their way to the mints) to present a statement of the total coinage of the country, derived from the records of the earliest periods to which access could be had:—

TABLE OF THE COINAGE OF MEXICO, FROM THE EARLIEST PERIODS TO THE PRESENT DAY.

The mint of the city of Mexico was established in 1535, but there are no returns for the first 155 years, until 1690. If we take the average of the coinage of these years to have been $1,000,000, we shall have	$155,000,000
From 1690 to 1803, inclusive,	1,353,452,020
1803 to 1821, inclusive,	261,354,022
1822,	5,543,254
1823,	3,567,821
1824,	3,503,880
1825,	6,036,878
1825 to 1831, (on an average, three millions per annum),	15,000,000
1831,	13,000,000
1832,	12,500,000
1833,	12,500,000
1834,	12,040,000
1835,	12,000,000
1836,	12,050,000
1837,	11,610,000
1838 to 1843, (averaging twelve millions,)	60,000,000
To this must be added the coinage of state mints, not included in above:—	
Guanajuato, from 1812 to 1826,	3,024,194
Zacatecas, " 1810 to 1826,	32,108,185
Guadalaxara, " 1812 to 1826,	5,659,159
Durango, " 1811 to 1826,	7,483,626
Chihuahua, " 1811 to 1814,	3,603,660
Sombrerete, " 1810 to 1811,	1,561,249
All of these for the five years, (after 1826,) since which they have been calculated in the general coinage,	60,000,000
Total,	$2,068,597,948

This amount is less than it has been made by several other writers.

Art. III.—THE SUGAR-TRADE OF THE WORLD.*

NUMBER I.

It is well known that sugar can be produced from other vegetables besides the cane. In France and Prussia, it is extracted from the beet root; in some parts of France, from grapes; in India, from the date; in America, from the maple of Canada and the United States, the stalk of the Indian corn, and the Mexican agave. But none of these plants yield nearly such a quantity of saccharine matter, or so freely, as the sugar cane. None of their sugars can stand in competition with cane sugar in a fair and free market. The attempts to substitute the other classes of sugar for that of the cane by the aid of restrictive or prohibitive duties, which have been made in different countries of Europe, appear everywhere to be on the eve of being abandoned.

The sugar cane is, properly speaking, a tropical plant. In the north of India, and in Louisiana, it is cultivated as far north as the 30th degree of latitude; and it seems formerly to have flourished on the north shores of the Persian gulf. In Louisiana, however, the canes are liable to suffer from early frosts, which materially diminish the produce; and the peculiar physical conformation of the regions adjoining the Persian gulf, and lying in the nook enclosed by the Himalaya and the mountains of Afghanistan, raise their average temperature far above that which prevails in most countries on the same parallel of north latitude. In China, the cultivation of the cane does not seem to be attempted north of the Poyang lake, about 29° N. The principal plantations are between that and Canton, in Fokien, and in the islands Hainan and Formosa. In the southern hemisphere, the cane does not appear to be cultivated with success south of 24°. The sugar plantations most remote from the equator are those in the vicinity of Rio Janeiro, and in the northern provinces of La Plata. The sugar countries, therefore, may be considered as limited to 30° N., and 24° S. of the equator. They consist of two groups, the western or American, which have been created by European skill and enterprise; the eastern, where the manufacture and trade have been carried on since remote antiquity, but where European energy is only beginning to give them a new impetus.

In our endeavors to place before the readers of the Merchants' Magazine as complete a view of the sugar trade as our access to information permits, we shall therefore fix our attention principally upon cane sugar. We will first pass in review the *sugar-importing* countries; and under each will fall to be noticed any internal manufacture of sugar from other vegetables than the cane from which its supplies may be derived. In the second place, we will pass in review the *sugar-exporting* countries, classifying them under these two great groups: 1st, the countries exporting cane sugar which lie west of the Cape of Good Hope; 2d, those which are to the east of the Cape.

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* In the preparation of the present paper, we are largely indebted to a supplementary number of the London Spectator of April, 1843, on the subject of Cheap Sugar by Free Labor, to the last Annual Report of the French Administration of Commerce, and the Reports of the Treasury Department of our own country on the Commerce and Navigation of the United States, &c., &c.—*Ed. Mer. Mag.*

I. IMPORTING COUNTRIES.

GREAT BRITAIN.—The tables of revenue, &c., for 1840, presented to both houses of parliament, contain two tables, which, as they serve to illustrate the sources whence Great Britain draws her supplies of sugar, and the countries to which the surplus not entered for consumption is re-exported, are given here :—

TABLE I.—SUGAR IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1840.

Places from which Imported.	Into G. Britain.	Into Ireland.	Total.
	Cwts.	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*
British West Indies,	2,019,934	194,830	2,214,764
British North America,	2,917	.....	2,917
Cape of Good Hope,	11	.....	11
Mauritius,	545,007	.....	545,007
British East Indies, viz :—			
East India Company's Territories,	482,782	.....	482,782
Singapore,	15,875	.....	15,875
Ceylon,	73	.....	73
Siam,	9,250	.....	9,250
Java,	31,918	.....	31,918
Philippine Islands,	69,981	.....	69,981
China,	2	.....	2
New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land,	1	.....	1
Foreign West Indies, viz :—			
Cuba,	304,063	.....	304,063
Porto Rico,	87,171	2,412	89,583
Cayenne,	1,569	.....	1,569
United States of North America,	4	.....	4
Columbia,	1,625	.....	1,625
Brazil,	215,962	.....	215,962
Peru,	57	.....	57
Europe,	50,401	.....	50,401
Total,	3,838,603	197,242	4,035,845

TABLE II.—SUGAR EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1840.

Countries to which Exported.	RAW SUGAR. From British posses'ns.	RAW SUGAR. Foreign.	RAW SUGAR. Total of Raw sugar.	REFINED SUGAR. Actual weight.	REFINED SUGAR. The same stated as raw sugar.*	REFINED SUGAR. Total stated as raw sug.
FROM GREAT BRITAIN—	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*
Russia,	165	39,816	39,981	15,165	25,781	65,762
Sweden and Norway,	.....	1,806	1,806	769	1,307	3,113
Denmark,	.....	5,904	5,904	2	3	5,907
Prussia,	.....	50,570	50,570	142	241	50,811
Germany,	56	4,392	4,448	2,549	4,333	8,781
Holland,	.....	24,398	24,398	145	247	24,645
Belgium,	1	40,825	40,826	.....	.....	40,826
France,	.....	2,636	2,636	582	990	3,626
Portugal, the Azores, and Madeira,	.....	400	400	969	1,647	2,047
Spain and the Canaries,	.....	4,611	4,611	11,910	20,247	24,858
Gibraltar,	.....	6	6	5,840	9,928	9,934
Italy,	.....	17,034	17,034	70,066	119,112	136,146
Malta,	.....	9,700	9,700	6,794	11,550	21,250
Ionian Islands,	.....	1,737	1,737	7,688	13,070	14,807
Morea and Greek Islands,	.....	186	186	1,159	1,970	2,156
Turkey,	.....	4,653	4,653	33,376	56,739	61,392
Syria and Palestine,	.....	757	757	817	1,389	2,146

* 34 cwt. of raw to 20 cwt. of refined. This proportion, although still used in official calculations, is now known to be incorrect.

TABLE II.—SUGAR EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1840—Continued.

Countries to which Exported.	RAW SUGAR. From British posses'ns.	Foreign.	Total of raw sugar.	REFINED SUGAR. Actual weight.	The same stated as raw sugar.	Total stated as raw sug.
FROM GREAT BRITAIN—	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
Egypt,.....	.....	223	223	1,052	1,788	2,011
Morocco,.....	.....	.....	.....	1,432	2,435	2,435
West Coast of Africa,.....	15	605	620	339	576	1,196
Cape of Good Hope,.....	.....	3,266	3,266	932	1,584	4,850
St. Helena,.....	.....	42	42	13	22	64
Mauritius,.....	.....	.....	.....	3,305	5,619	5,619
East Indies and China,....	13	50	63	2,449	4,163	4,226
Australia, (including New Zealand,).....	151	617	768	12,311	20,929	21,697
British North America,....	.....	1,150	1,150	30,127	51,216	52,366
British West Indies,.....	275	28	303	19,907	33,842	34,145
Foreign West Indies,.....	.....	1	1	21	36	37
United States of N. America,.....	.....	5,485	5,485	56	95	5,580
Mexico and States of S. America,.....	.....	92	92	373	634	726
Guernsey, &c.,.....	7,314	531	7,845	4,758	8,089	15,934
Total from Great Britain,	7,990	221,521	229,511	235,048	399,582	629,093
FROM IRELAND—						
France,.....	.....	1	1	.....	.....	1
British West Indies,.....	.....	.....	.....	131	223	223
Total from Ireland,.....	.....	1	1	131	223	224
Total from United Kingdom,.....	7,990	221,522	229,512	235,179	399,805	629,317

These are the most recent tables that show the distribution of British sugar—the channels into which the British sugar-trade runs. It must be remarked, however, in order to prevent erroneous inferences, that the importation of about 50,000 cwt. of sugar from "Europe," in 1840, was an exceptional case; and such an entry will not be found in any other year.

The supply of sugar in this country may be said to consist exclusively of cane sugar. In 1838, we find 129 cwt. of beet-root sugar entered as having paid the excise duty; in 1839, 16 cwt.; and in 1840, 104 cwt. These quantities are too inconsiderable to admit of any other inference than that the manufacture of beet-root sugar is with us merely an amusement for amateurs. The total of sugar imported into Great Britain in 1842, was 234,963 tons. Of this quantity, 193,823 tons were entered for home consumption, 20,094 tons exported in a raw state, and 21,966 refined.* The sugar entered for home consumption was exclusively the produce of the British West Indies, and the districts of British India, from which sugar is now allowed to be imported at the West Indian rates of duty. The differential duty on foreign sugar was in effect prohibitory. In the circular of a great mercantile house in the city, for the present month, we read, "The first three months of the present year show a much greater consumption than the same period in former years, being 42,500

* Accounts relating to Trade and Navigation, ordered to be printed by the House of Commons, 17th February, 1843.

tons against 35,500 in 1842, and 38,000 in 1841; and there is every prospect of its extension."

FRANCE.*—A considerable proportion of the sugar consumed in France is manufactured in the country from beet-root. In 1837, 543 manufacturers of beet-root sugar produced about 35,000 tons. In 1838–9, 560 manufacturers, all except five actively at work, produced nearly 40,000 tons. In 1840–41, 388 manufacturers produced about 26,000 tons. The annual average consumption of beet-root and colonial sugars together, for seven years, has amounted to about 93,600 tons. In 1840, about 78,000 tons of foreign and colonial sugar were imported into France. To this must be added nearly 26,000 tons of beet-root sugar manufactured in that year, giving an available total of 104,000 tons; and about 10,500 tons were exported, leaving for the consumption of the whole of France in that year, 93,500 tons. Sugar imported into France is, as in Great Britain, liable to heavy duties.† Even beet-root sugar is subjected to an excise duty of 6*s.* 10*d.* per cwt. These duties, the limitation of the number of ports into which sugar may be imported, and other vexatious restrictions, have all been imposed with a view to promote the growth of beet-root sugar. They combine to augment the price of sugar in France, which, while it averaged in the Antilles, in 1840, 22*s.* per cwt., averaged at Havre 53*s.* 6*d.*, (the average duty-paid price of sugar in the London market was in the same year 74*s.* 2½*d.*,) and at Paris considerably more. The falling off in the production of beet-root sugar in France of late years is the consequence of inability to keep its ground in the market against cane sugar, laboring under all the disadvantages mentioned. The complaints of the colonial merchants and the shipping interest, and the impatience of the consumer, are working a change in public opinion on the subject of beet-root sugar. Committees were appointed in 1840 and 1841, and their reports have led the government to entertain the proposal to *prohibit* the manufacture of beet-root sugar, and to indemnify the manufacturers.

QUANTITIES OF SUGAR IMPORTED INTO, AND EXPORTED FROM FRANCE, DISTINGUISHING THE COLONIAL SUGARS.

Imported into France.

	COLONIAL.		FOREIGN.		TOTAL.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Years.	*Kilogrammes.*	*Francs.*	*Kilogrammes.*	*Francs.*	*Kilogrammes.*	*Francs.*
1834,.....	83,049,141	51,700,000	12,080,451	6,900,000	95,129,592	58,600,000
1835,.....	84,249,890	52,600,000	10,434,289	6,200,000	94,684,179	58,800,000
1836,.....	79,326,022	49,400,000	9,461,555	6,100,000	88,787,577	55,500,000
1837,.....	66,535,563	41,700,000	10,618,467	6,200,000	77,174,030	47,900,000
1838,.....	86,992,808	55,000,000	12,389,707	7,200,000	99,392,515	62,200,000
1839.....	87,664,893	54,800,000	6,396,818	4,100,000	94,461,711	58,900,000
1840,.....	75,543,696	47,300,000	17,355,299	9,300,000	92,898,995	56,600,000
1841,.....	85,850,823	54,400,000	21,511,816	11,900,000	107,362,639	66,300,000
	Entered for Consumption.					
1834,.....	66,475,430	43,700,000	4,366,804	2,000,000	70,842,234	43,900,000
1835,.....	69,339,548	44,800,000	3,292,480	1,500,000	72,632,028	46,300,000
1836,.....	66,188,958	41,800,000	1,012,833	500,000	67,201,791	42,300,000
1837,.....	66,489,668	41,700,000	3,342,966	1,600,000	69,832,634	43,300,000
1838,.....	68,146,685	43,300,000	3,309,480	1,500,000	71,456,165	44,800,000

* Commercial Tariffs, Part IV.—France. Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of her Majesty, April 1842.

† For the comparative rates of duty in the principal sugar marts of Europe, see a table at the end of this chapter.

QUANTITIES OF SUGAR IMPORTED INTO, AND EXPORTED FROM FRANCE, etc.—Continued.

Entered for Consumption—Continued.

Years.	Colonial. Quantity. *Kilogrammes.*	Colonial. Value. *Francs.*	Foreign. Quantity. *Kilogrammes.*	Foreign. Value. *Francs.*	Total. Quantity. *Kilogrammes.*	Total. Value. *Francs.*
1839,.....	71,613,062	45,100,000	655,340	300,000	72,268,402	45,400,000
1840,.....	78,445,086	49,200,000	6,666,360	3,100,000	85,111,446	52,300,000
1841,.....	74,514,503	47,500,000	12,042,268	6,000,000	86,556,771	53,500,000

Exports of Raw Sugar.

Years.	Colonial. Quantity. *Kilogrammes.*	Foreign. Quantity. *Kilogrammes.*	Total. Quantity. *Kilogrammes.*	Total. Value. *Francs.*
1834,.....	53,056	5,056,734	5,109,790	5,500,000
1835,.....	4,350,876	8,146,527	12,497,403	11,600,000
1836,.....	5,570,000	6,387,099	11,957,099	10,800,000
1837,.....	652,361	7,326,072	7,978,433	8,200,000
1838,.....	9,385,962	8,755,358	18.141,320	15,800,000
1839,.....	8,511,135	6,260,442	14,771,577	12,600,000
1840,.....	172,732	6,234,188	6,406,920	6,600,000
1841,.....	357,607	5,953,299	6,310,906	6,500,000
	Exports of Refined Sugars.			
1834,.....	53,351	2,692,799	2,746.150	5,700,000
1835,.....	1,259,625	2,940,257	4,199,882	7,000,000
1836,.....	6,538,732	884,844	7,423,576	11,100,000
1837,.....	2,085,075	2,046,021	4,131.096	9,600,000
1838,.....	2,779,177	2,808,499	5,587,676	10,200,000
1839,.....	6,366,127	544,434	6,910,561	11,600,000
1840,.....	466,107	3,203,136	3,669,243	10,600,000
1841,.....	40,952	8,065,485	8,106,437	13,300,000

HOLLAND.—In 1840, the value of sugar imported into Holland from all parts of the world, is said* to have been—

From Dutch Indies, ...	£1,243,765	From England,.....	£85,833
" Cuba and Porto Rico,.	656,333		
" Hanse Towns,.....	227,708	Total,.....	£2,432,749
" Brazil, ...	219,000		

Of this total, sugar to the value of £2,014,183 was imported into Amsterdam alone. We have no statement of the value of the sugar imported into Rotterdam in 1840; but in 1841, it was £259,720. From this it may be inferred that the importation of sugar into Holland centres in these two ports. One-half of the sugar annually imported into Holland would appear to be drawn from its own colonies. Of this portion, 15,000 tons are drawn from Surinam,† the rest from Java. The quantity of sugar exported from Java in 1840 was 61,378 tons, two-thirds of which, being about 40,000 tons, added to the 15,000 from Surinam, gives 55,000 tons of sugar imported into Holland in 1840, from its own colonies. It would appear from the table of values, that the quantity of sugar imported from other countries about equalled the quantity imported from the colonies. In 1840, therefore, there cannot have been less than 110,000 tons of sugar imported into Holland, about half the quantity imported into Great Britain in the same year. The population of Holland does not exceed 3,100,000; and the general high taxation of Holland, joined to the frugality of the people, limits the demand for sugar to far below what would, under more favorable circumstances, be consumed by the

* Commercial Tariffs and Regulations, Part VI.—Holland. Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of her Majesty, 2d February, 1843.

† Surinam Almanac.

Dutch at home. Raw sugar to the value of £276,000 is stated to have been re-exported in 1840. The refined sugar exported in the same year is estimated at £2,112,000. The bulk of the sugar imported into Holland is intended to be re-exported as refined sugar. It is a forced trade. A monopoly of the Java sugars is given to the Colonial Association of Holland (Neerlandische-Handel-Maat schappy.) The inhabitants of Java are obliged to cover a fifth part of their estates with sugar, which is paid as rent. The sugar is prepared in private factories, to which money is advanced by government, who are repaid in raw sugar received at the rate of 15*s.* 3*d.* per cwt. This sugar is delivered by the government to the company's agents at certain ports, and shipped for Holland by the company at fixed rates, free of duty, at the risk of government. The company dispose of it by public sales "as speedily as possible," and account to the government for the proceeds. The sugar thus obtained by forced labor is sold at a low price to the refiners, who have built as if they were to receive for ever a bounty which would enable them to engross the home market of continental Europe. The effect of forcing the cultivation of sugar for the Dutch refineries has been attended with great loss. Russia prohibits the importation of refined sugar; Germany imposes high differential duties on refined sugars, and admits raw sugars for refineries; France imposes high, and England prohibitory duties, both on raw and refined sugars. The loss of Belgium has reduced the home consumption one-half. The production of Java has gone on increasing, and the Dutch have been obliged to go on refining beyond the demand of the market, to avoid greater loss. There have already been failures from this cause in Rotterdam and Amsterdam; but the chief revenue of Java is derived from sugar, and the Dutch navigation depends upon the sugar-trade. By the arrangement of 1839, the Dutch government is bound to persevere in this system till 1850.

DENMARK.—The quantity of sugar imported into Copenhagen, in 1838, was—

St. Croix sugar,	cwts.	52,187
Foreign plantation,		40,803
Total,		92,990

The German province of Holstein is supplied with sugar from Hamburg; there are no means of ascertaining the quantity. The duties on sugar in Denmark are moderate; the prices are low; but the whole supply does not exceed the demand.*

HAMBURG, AND OTHER GERMAN STATES NOT INCLUDED IN THE ZOLL-VEREIN.—Hamburg and Bremen are the emporiums of sugar for all the German states (except Austria) not included in the Zoll-verein. Hamburg, in addition to the supplies with which it furnishes those countries, exports largely to Prussia, and sends a considerable quantity of sugar to the northwestern provinces of Austria. The customs-duties, both in Hamburg and Bremen, are little more than nominal. The quantity imported into Bremen, in 1838, was 6,200 tons. The importation of Hamburg, in 1840 and 1841, amounted to—

1840,	tons	45,300	1841,	tons	30,200

* Commercial Tariffs and Regulations, Part III., presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of her Majesty, 7th February, 1842.

The stock remaining on hand, at the end of 1841, was 8,700 tons. The sugar transported from Hamburg, by the Elbe, in 1837 and 1838, to the Prussian dominions alone, amounted to—

	In 1837.	In 1838.		In 1837.	In 1838.
Raw,.....tons	18,300	18,800	Refined,.....tons	1,100	1,200

THE GERMAN ZOLL-VEREIN.—The customs union of Germany resembles France in this respect, that a large portion of its sugar supply consists of home-manufactured beet-root sugar. It differs from France in this respect, that it has no colonies, and, we might almost say, no maritime trade. The following table* shows the amount of the colonial sugar-trade, in the states of the union, in the years 1837 to 1840, inclusive:—

	Imports.			Exports.	
Years.	Refined. *Centners.*†	Raw and Lump sugars for refiners. *Centners.*	Years.	Refined. *Centners.*	Raw and Lump sugars for refiners. *Centners.*
1837,.....	213,740	1,140,168	1837,.....	30,788	56
1838,‡ }.....	.....	.....	1838,.....	21,936	25
1839, }.....	.....	.....	1839,.....	21,227	199
1840,.....	269,964	1,414,148	1840,.....	42,808	310

Professor Dietrici, (from whose official work on the commerce of Prussia and the Zoll-verein, in 1837–39, these tables are taken,) states the quantity of beet-root sugar annually produced in the territories of the League, as far as it had been ascertained, as follows:—In Prussia, eighty-nine manufacturers produced annually 112,268 centners of best beet-root sugar; thirty-six in the other states of the union produced 32,942 centners; in all, 145,210 centners, or about 6,500 tons. From some manufacturers, returns had been obtained; but as the professor leaves them out of account in his subsequent calculations, they were probably of little consequence.

It appears, therefore, that in 1840, about 55,000 tons of colonial sugar were imported into the states of the union; at least about 6,500 tons of beet-root sugar manufactured in them, and nearly 2,000 tons exported. This leaves about 59,500 tons for internal consumption. The produce of the beet-root sugar manufactories would, according to this statement, amount to nearly a tenth part of the whole sugar consumed in the union. The production of this tenth is promoted, and perhaps rendered possible, by the duties imposed on imported sugar; which will be found stated, along with those of France and other countries, in the sequel.

The colonial raw sugar consumed or refined in the customs union, is derived almost exclusively from Holland and Hamburg; a very little is imported from England in the eastern Baltic ports of Prussia.

THE AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS.—The sugar consumed in Austria is partly beet-root and partly cane sugar. Professor Dietrici estimates the quantity of beet-root sugar annually produced in Austria at nearly 3,200 tons; and from the sickly state of the manufacture, there is good reason to believe that this is not an under-estimate. The great emporium of colonial sugar is Trieste. There is a growing sugar-trade from Hamburg to Bohemia and Galicia. In 1839, about 1,500 tons found their way through this channel into the Austrian dominions. Some sugar is imported into Venice which does not come through Trieste; in 1836 it amounted to

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* Commercial Tariffs and Regulations, Part V.

† The Berlin centner=103.3 lbs. avoirdupois English.

‡ These years are left blank in the original tables of Professor Dietrici.

upwards of 1,096 hhds., valued at £101,031. An official statement now before us gives the quantity of sugar annually imported into Trieste from 1832 to 1841. As a good deal has been said about the increased consumption of sugar anticipated in Austria from the reduced duties of the tariff of 1838, a table, showing the imports of 1838, (the year in which the new tariff came into operation,) of the three years preceding that year, and the three following it, is here subjoined :—

SUGAR IMPORTED INTO TRIESTE.

Years.	Raw. Tons.*	Refined. Tons.	Total. Tons.	Years.	Raw. Tons.	Refined. Tons.	Total. Tons.
1835,.....	19,800	2,195	21,995	1839,.....	26,050	5,832	31,880
1836,.....	27,500	5,500	33,000	1840,.....	23,446	4,400	27,846
1837,.....	15,680	4,064	19,744	1841,.....	18,595	8,525	27,120
1838,.....	22,154	8,000	30,154				

BELGIUM.—The total importation of sugar into Antwerp, in 1838, was 15,000 tons. Professor Dietrici estimates the annual average of beet-root sugar manufactured in Belgium at 15,000 tons. There are no means of estimating the quantity of sugar exported from Belgium.

ITALY.—The sugar of Italy (the Austrian provinces excepted) is drawn principally from Holland, France, and England. The quantity, we have found it difficult to ascertain : it appears to be about 35,000 tons.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.—The statistics of the sugar-trade of the Peninsula, like those of Naples, remain a blank, though every effort has been made to procure information regarding them. M. Montveran estimates the consumption in Spain at 41,000 tons.

SWEDEN.—The accounts of the sugar-trade of Sweden and Norway are somewhat antiquated, and not very minute. In 1829, 90,334 cwt. of sugar was imported into Sweden; in 1831 the importation amounted to 97,106. Norway and Finland are in part supplied with sugar from Sweden.

RUSSIA.—Nearly 35,000 tons of sugar were imported into Russia in 1838, by way of Odessa and St. Petersburg. According to the official journal of Berlin, there were, in 1841, 174 manufactories of beet-root sugar in Russia.† The amount of the produce of these establishments is not mentioned : Professor Dietrici estimates it at 156,600 Berlin centners —this, however, is mere conjecture.

UNITED STATES.—The United States, notwithstanding the very considerable quantity of sugar produced in them, belong to the importing countries. In 1839, the import of sugars was 195,231,273 lbs., at a cost of $10,000,000. In 1840, about 120,000,000 lbs. were imported, valued at about $6,000,000. The greater part of this was retained for home consumption. The quantity of sugar produced in the United States, in 1841, appears from the following table :—

	Pounds.		Pounds.
Maine,.....	263,592	New Jersey,.....	67
New Hampshire,.....	169,519	Pennsylvania, ...	2,894,016
Massachusetts,.....	496,341	Delaware, ...	.....
Rhode Island,.....	55	Maryland,.....	39,892
Connecticut, ...	56,372	Virginia,.....	1,557,206
Vermont,.....	5,119,264	North Carolina,.....	8,924
New York,.....	11,102,070	South Carolina,.....	31,461

* In the original table the quantities are stated in centners of Vienna (123¼ lbs. avoir. dupois); in converting them into English weight fractions have been disregarded.

† Preussische Staats-Zeitung, 1841; No. 117.

	Pounds.		Pounds.
Georgia,.....	357,611	Missouri,.....	327,165
Alabama,.....	10,650	Arkansas,.....	2,147
Mississippi,.....	127	Michigan, ...	1,894,372
Louisiana,.....	88,189,315	Florida,.....	269,146
Tennessee, ...	275,557	Wisconsin, ...	147,816
Kentucky,.....	1,409,172	Iowa,.....	51,425
Ohio, ...	7,109,423	District of Columbia,.....	.....
Indiana,.....	3,914,184		
Illinois,.....	415,756	Total,.....	126,164,644

The quantity of sugar imported into the states, in 1841, was, of brown sugar, 163,276,309 lbs.; white, clayed, or powdered, 17,646,019 lbs.; loaf, 68,060 lbs. The value is stated in the treasury report to have been $8,804,700. This, added to the quantity produced, gives for the total consumption of the United States, in 1841, about 132,200 tons. In Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, and Florida, sugar is manufactured from the cane; and the produce of these countries amounts to within thirty-five millions of pounds of the whole produce of the states. According to a statement published by Mr. P. A. Degelos, of New Orleans, which enumerates every plantation in the state of Louisiana, with the number of hogsheads produced by each, we notice that the crop of 1842 reached the very large amount of 140,316 hhds., being about 5,000 hhds. more than the highest estimate. The product of molasses he computes at 52 gallons for each hogshead of sugar, which would give a total of 7,296,432 gallons. The whole number of plantations is found to be 668, of which 361 use steam and 307 horse-power. Louisiana, Alabama, and Mississippi, are at the extreme verge of the cane-cultivation: almost every alternate year the canes suffer from the early frosts. The prospects of increased population and cultivation in Florida are rather remote. The remaining thirty-five million pounds of sugar is prepared from maple in the thinly-settled districts, and from beet-root in the rest. Some experiments were made by the French chemists towards the close of last century on the yield of sugar from the maple, which clearly showed that the cultivation of this tree for the manufacture of sugar could not pay in an old settled country. The beet-root is not likely to compete any better with the cane in America than in Europe. There is every reason to believe, then, that the United States, with their rapidly increasing population, will continue to import sugar, and that to a greater extent than we have hitherto done.

From a table published in a former number of this Magazine, which we compiled from annual reports of the secretary of the treasury, it appears that the quantity of brown sugar imported into the United States in twenty-one years, from 1821 to 1841, amounted to 2,025,020,916 pounds, of which 1,778,996,140 pounds were consumed in the United States. The quantity of foreign brown sugar exported during the same period (twenty-one years) amounted to 296,004,776 pounds. The quantity of white sugar imported into the United States in the same twenty-one years was 214,464,415 pounds, while the consumption was 104,669,095, and the exports 109,813,330 pounds.

The following is the quantity, in pounds and value, of sugar imported into the United States for twelve years previous to 1833:—

Years.	Quantity.	Value.	Years.	Quantity.	Value.
1821,.....	59,512,835	$3,553,582	1824,.....	94,379,814	$5,165,800
1822,.....	88,305,670	5,034,429	1825,.....	71,771,479	4,232,530
1823,.....	60,789,210	3,258,689	1826,.....	84,902,955	5,311,631

Years.	Quantity.	Value.	Years.	Quantity.	Value.
1827,.....	76,701,629	$4,577,361	1830,.....	86,483,046	$4,630,342
1828,.....	56,935,951	3,546,736	1831,.....	109,014,654	4,910,877
1829,.....	63,307,294	3,622,406	1832,.....	66,452,288	2,933,688

Quantity in pounds, and value of Sugar, imported into the United States in each year, from 1833 *to* 1841.*

Years.	Brown.	White clayed.	Loaf.	Total quantity.	Total value.
1833,.....	85,689,044	11,999,088	46,035	97,734,167	$4,757,523
1834,.....	107,483,841	7,906,014	1,670	115,391,525	5,538,044
1835,.....	111,806,880	14,229,359	2,096	126,038,335	6,806,425
1836,.....	181,243,537	10,182,578	926	191,429,041	12,514,647
1837,.....	120,416,071	15,723,748	9,899	136,149,718	7,203,800
1838,.....	139,200,905	14,678,238	2,948	153,882,091	7,586,629
1839,.....	182,540,327	12,690,946	895	195,232,168	9,921,956
1840,.....	107,955,033	12,984,552	1,035	120,940,620	5,581,012
1841,.....	165,963,083	18,233,579	68,261	184,264,923	8,802,734

British Colonies.—The British colonies in which sugar is not produced are British North America, the Cape of Good Hope, and the settlements in New Holland and New Zealand. The following is the state of the import of sugar into them in the year 1839 :—

	Raw Sugar.			Refined
Colonies.	British Plantation.	Foreign.	East Indian.	British.
British North America,.....lbs.	1,629,560	16,667,323	164,257	3,086,184
New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land,.....	6,636,050	9,318,590†	.....	787,490
Cape of Good Hope,.....	2,839,115	816,061	109,747	51,789
Total,.....	11,104,725	26,801,974	274,004	3,945,463

Northern Asia.—Though the quantity cannot be ascertained, it is known that considerable quantities of sugar are imported into the northern provinces of China, and into Chinese and Independent Tartary.

South America.—There is also a growing demand, the exact quantity of which cannot be ascertained, in the southern provinces of La Plata and Chili.

It is but too apparent, from this review, that any estimate of the total annual consumption of sugar in the sugar-importing countries, founded on the collective amount of their importations, must be imperfect. The data are insufficient. And any other method of attempting to arrive at the quantity consumed, must evidently be fallacious. The great importing markets in Europe are Great Britain, France, Holland, Russia, Hamburg, and Trieste. Their imports are re-exported in part, to supply the demand of the rest of Europe, North Africa, and Western Asia. Each of them imports a portion of its sugar from some of the others; but the effect of this, in making the figure of their total exports too high, may be set off against the unknown quantity imported into Spain and Portugal, and small quantities imported direct into Italy, Russia, and Sweden. The total imports of the United States, and of the British colonies which do

* For a statement exhibiting the import, export, and consumption of foreign brown and white sugar in the United States, annually, in each year, from 1821 to 1841, divided into three periods, of seven years each; and also the quantity of domestic sugar exported annually, during the same time, see Merchants' Magazine for December, 1842, vol. vii., p. 562.

† In this sum, the import from India is included.

not produce sugar, are ascertained with tolerable accuracy. But our ignorance of the quantity consumed by the importing countries of Eastern and Northern Asia, and in Chili and the provinces of La Plata, renders it impossible to ascertain the whole annual consumption of sugar. The quantity actually passing through the market of the importing countries, in the course of a year, as far as can be shown in figures, is here given :—

Great Britain (1842) retained for consumption.....tons		193,823
France (1840) colonial retained for consumption, and beet-root,.....		93,500
Holland (1840) imported.....		110,000
Denmark (1838) imported.....		4,650
Hamburg (1840) imported		45,300
Prussia and Zoll-verein, (1839) beet-root sugar,.....		6,500
Belgium, (1838) colonial and beet-root sugar,.....		30,000
Russia (1840) imported.....	35,000	42,700
" (1841) beet-root sugar,.....	7,700	
Austria (1841) imported at Trieste.....	25,120	28,320
" (1841) beet-root,.....	3,200	
United States of North America, (1841,).....		132,000
British colonies not producing sugar, (1839,).....		18,800
Total,.....tons		706,593

The quantity of sugar retained for consumption in France and Great Britain has been taken, because what is exported would have been repeated in other countries; the total imports of Holland and Hamburg are taken; but the colonial sugar imported into the Zoll-verein, and into Austria overland, and Switzerland, as drawn from these markets, is omitted; the sugar in Italy, Spain, and Portugal, cannot be ascertained.

We have received from a gentleman who has access to the best information respecting the state of the sugar-trade, the following statement of the stocks on hand in the leading importing markets of Europe, on the 1st of March for each of the years 1840, 1841, 1842, and 1843. They are sufficiently close to show that the annual consumption must pretty nearly equal the annual importation: it is obvious that in almost every country the use of sugar is on the increase; and hence it follows, that the actual produce of the exporting countries is no more than sufficient to supply the existing demand.

STOCKS OF SUGAR, IN TONS, ON THE 1ST OF MARCH, 1840–43.

	In 1840.	In 1841.	In 1842.	In 1843.
Holland,.....tons	10,700	16,600	15,550	3,100
Hamburg,.....	7,000	5,750	6,750	3,500
Trieste,.....	5,600	8,400	2,900	3,950
Antwerp,.....	1,000	2,800	4,150	2,000
Havre,.....	500	2,500	2,600	7,000
	24,800	36,050	31,950	19,550
England,.....	39,875	47,900	43,000	43,000
Total,.....	64,675	83,950	74,950	63,050
British Plantation in England,.....	26,995	27,650	28,200	31,450
Foreign sugar,.....	37,680	56,300	46,750	31,600

Comparative Table of the Duties leviable on the Importation of Sugar into the principal consuming Countries.

	IN SHILLINGS, PER HUNDRED WEIGHT. Raw. s. d.	Clayed. s. d.	Refined. s. d.
Great Britain—West India colonies,	24s. and 5 per cent.	... .	168 0
" British India,			
" Mauritius,			
" Foreign India,	32 0	... .	... .
" Foreign,	63 0	63 0	... .
France—French colonies, average,	18 0	25 6	prohibited.
" Foreign average,	31 0	36 0	prohibited.
Holland,	16 6	... .	82 0
German Customs Union, or Zoll-verein—for refining,	16 0	... .	... .
" " " " for sale,	30 0	... .	32 0
Lumps for refining, under special control,	17 0	... .	... .
Austria—for refining,	14 0	... .	... .
" for sale,	27 0	... .	33 0
United States of America,	11 6	18 6	28 0

NOTE.—Our statement of the sugar-trade, in our second and concluding paper, will be confined to the exporting countries.

ART. IV.—MERCANTILE EDUCATION.

IT is gratifying to find, among the resolutions passed by the "Home League," convened in the city of New York in October last, the following: "Resolved, That a union of education and labor is as advantageous to a young nation, desirous to introduce the useful arts, as schooling and learning a trade is among the enterprizing young men of an industrious community, &c. &c.;" for, whatever may have been *thought* of the value of education, it is certain that little has been *said* heretofore upon the subject among merchants. This, then, is a most hopeful token of the times; and we propose to enlarge a little upon the topic of what education means, as applied to mercantile life.

Not many years ago, the father, in placing his son at school, used such language as this: "I wish my boy to learn arithmetic and writing; but I do not care about his studying any foreign language, or to take up his time with history; for I am going to make a merchant of him." The lad, intended for the store, did spend his time on the multiplication and interest tables; he did learn to write and read, and these, many merchants can bear testimony, closed his school career. How many a man can recollect when he bade adieu to his schoolmates for the last time, and felt he was committing but a frail bark to the tempestuous world, as the school door closed behind him for ever. Just at the time that he was beginning to feel some interest in his studies, because he was beginning to understand them, he was cut short of any further instruction, and turned into the counting-house, to sigh for the green playground, his merry schoolfellows, and, perhaps, for daily tasks which, when completed, made his mind spring with elastic joy. But his easy dress must undergo a change also. The round jacket must give place to a premature long-tailed coat; the easy shoe to the high-heeled boot; the open shirt collar to the starched cravat. With the feelings of a boy, but the dress of a man, he is forced, at the tender age of fourteen, to lay aside his affections

and assume ceremony; to be polite where he wishes to love; to smile when he longs to laugh; to walk consequentially, when he longs to run and shout. His tastes, too; what a sacrifice! He loved flowers, the fragrant hay, the breath of spring, the noise of the spring freshet, which told him that the snows were melting on the hill-sides. Instead of these, he has the smell of tar, docks, and foreign spices. Perhaps his employment is in a store where South American hides are stored for sale. Here, he holds his nose, at first, in deep disgust; but habit is second nature, and he, after a while, can face even this like a man; but, as he opens the store of a warm, summer morning, he is forced to say to himself, "This being a merchant is not what it is cracked up to be, after all." Poor boy! thy education is just begun. Many years of dry, profitless toil are before thee; many long walks with heavy bundles, wearying thy arms, unused to any weights but thy light bat and ball, or gaily painted fish pole; perchance thy curiously ornamented gun, stored away in charge of thy fond mother, now far from thee in thy dear, rural home—you will survive all this, and, by and by, forget those thoughts that now bring thy heart almost into thy throat, and to repay thee, thy own name will stand in gilded letters over the door from which thou now sweepest the blinding dust of commerce. Courage!

We know it is easy to pick flaws in almost any system of education; but we appeal to all thinking men if the training young boys receive, who intend to follow trade as their occupation, is not necessarily incomplete and shallow? To begin with: very many are obliged to resort to the city writing master, after they have commenced their clerkship, to make up for deficient practice at school. Not a few get their knowledge of accounts and book-keeping by sad experience of errors, which cost their employers much more than tuition fees. But these are slight matters, compared with others we have to mention. The lad, fitting for the store, is only taught those branches which will enable him to perform the duties of his place. His intellectual powers, his tastes, his habits of mind, are viewed as of little consequence. It seems to be forgotten, that he must have leisure hours to employ; times when, unless he is doing something good, he will find something evil to occupy him. It is forgotten that he is a tender, impressible being, open to all influences about him, and, as a youth, liable to be caught with syren songs and gilded baits. If he read, will he turn to history or biography? No, he has no taste for such studies; he was educated to be a merchant. What will be his reading? Most probably, some highly-wrought novel, which will inflame his passions and give him a romantic turn. Does he read Latin or French in his leisure hours? Oh no, these are forbidden books to the young clerk; dead languages to him, paying no interest, teaching nothing about buying and selling, taking his attention from the solid branches, the useful branches. Alas! what can he do in such a case but read novels or go to the play, or learn practical geometry on a billiard table? At this last employment he learns *angles* with a vengeance, and forgets often, on his way home from such a resort, the mathematical principle, "that a straight line is the shortest distance between two points."

It is rather remarkable that so much of human effort is bestowed upon reforming evils which might have been prevented in the outset. After an alarming conflagration, that burns down a large part of the city, an efficient fire police is established. After an epidemic has got strong hold of

the citizens, the mayor looks carefully to the cleansing of the streets. Churches are built, and ministers are feed, to reclaim the vicious man whose early youth was neglected; and finally a system of public lectures is now going on in all our cities, to teach men and women the elements of history and science, which they ought to have learned at school. And, in this last specific, the solid food has been given in moderate doses, well disguised in declamation and flowery language, for fear of nauseating the patients, weak with long fasting.

The fact to which we allude is strikingly illustrated in the whole course of education. We send our children to cheap schools, sometimes to the district school, where teachers are hired for about the wages of the man who sweeps the streets, where they are taught bad pronunciation, slovenly reading, and riddles in arithmetic, and then, if they set about obtaining anything like a complete education, much time and labor must first be spent in unlearning, reforming, and getting a fair start. But little care and expense is bestowed upon the lad who is destined for the store, because the parent hopes that his education will some how or other be completed by running of errands, doing up parcels, and going to the post-office.

And, strange enough to tell! it is finished in this hap-hazard way; and the young man, after a few years, returns to the home he left a raw country lad, a polished gentleman. His dress is faultless, his manners are easy, his conversational powers quite the wonder of the village maidens. How is this? Where did he acquire his language, his fund of information, his ready wit and store of sparkling anecdote? In the world, to be sure; by mixing with his fellows, talking, walking the streets, keeping his eyes open, and learning to observe.

Was it ever your good fortune, kind reader, to fall in with a city-bred lawyer, merchant, doctor or mechanic, in a stage-coach, on a long journey? and did he not enliven your otherwise tedious ride, and appear to you like a being from another world, by the side of silent country squires, who stand so much upon their dignity? If such has been your luck, you can readily understand how a free intercourse with men of all ranks and professions, how the rude bustle of the city streets, their noise and life, educate and inform, and give life to the mind.

It is no wonder that city folks and city clerks are so bright and amusing, for they are forced to employ their faculties, if it be for nothing else, to keep out of the way. Here is no stagnation, no apathy, no time for castle-building; it is all reality, life, action, and self-preservation. Where else in England, than in busy London, could Charles Lamb have found materials for his inimitable essays? How happens it that our best poets, Sprague and Bryant, live in the very din of the world's noise, unless there is a kind of inspiration in it?

It may seem that we argue against ourselves in showing the valuable education of city life; in stating that men, with little book learning, in a few years become polished, agreeable, and amusing. This is the bright side of the picture—the shading will come presently. It is not stating the truth too strongly to say that America is proud of her merchants. In fact it is another name for gentleman among us. Whether in the church, the legislative hall, the drawing-room, the home, they suffer not in comparison with any men in the land. We are a mercantile people, a trading nation, and why should not our merchants stand first and foremost in

every enterprize? But—we are bound in conscience to speak the truth—many young men are ruined in our cities yearly, for lack of a better early training of the intellect and the heart. Thousands fall a prey to dissipation and vice, because they have no taste for quiet and studious pursuits. Their business being over for the day, they seek that relaxation, in forbidden pleasures, which the fireside, the library, the literary circle should furnish. And the error is that young lads, intended for mercantile life, are not well educated. We have as good as acknowledged that they can get along very well, as far as business and appearance and social intercourse are concerned without a very complete education, but there is something more concerned besides these. There is a moral nature at stake—a soul, a heart, affections and habits.

The literary societies in the city are doing an immense deal of good, and remedy, in part, the evil to which we allude. But it will not be questioned that something more may be done, away back of the period when these are brought to bear upon the young mind. To reap the advantages of the fine libraries now open to the young merchant, he must receive an early training which will fit him to appreciate and enjoy the books that otherwise will be dead letter to his eyes. Who could read and enjoy Milton as his first book of poetry? Who would understand Silliman's Journal, that had not paid any attention to the natural sciences? Will the lyceum, the lecture-room, the debating-hall, furnish their full advantages to him who begins his education in places designed to polish, perfect, and keep fresh the mind? The answer to these questions grants the point we would urge—a better primary education for those intended for mercantile life.

Art. V.—PRODUCT OF PRECIOUS METALS SINCE THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

The greatest part of the gold and silver thrown on the world, was first taken from South America. Before Humboldt published his Political Essay upon New Spain, various reports, formed by learned individuals, had been circulated respecting the quantities of gold and silver exported from America. Notwithstanding, they all differed in their calculations from one another, on account of their having derived their information from sources which could not be relied upon, as is shown by the following calculation:—

Authors.	Epochs.	Dollars.
Ustariz,	1492 to 1724	3,536,000,000
Solorzano,	1492 to 1628	1,500,000,000
Moncada,	1492 to 1595	2,000,000,000
Navarette,	1519 to 1617	1,536,000,000
Raynal,	1492 to 1718	5,154,000,000
Robertson,	1492 to 1775	8,800,000,000
Neckar,	1763 to 1777	304,000,000
Gerboux,	1724 to 1800	1,600,000,000
The author of the "Investigation upon Commerce, Amsterdam, 1779,"	1492 to 1775	5,072,000,000

But Humboldt, by his extensive and laborious investigations, has left every one else far behind. This illustrious traveller, besides having a knowledge of all that had hitherto been written on this subject, had ac-

cess to official sources which were unknown to the authors just alluded to. He was a man well versed both in the theoretical as well as the practical knowledge of mining, and had examined, with the eyes of a critic, several of the most famed mines. Thus he was incomparably the most apt to form correct conclusions on the past, as well as on the actual produce of the mines, upon which point so many, until then, had formed speculations. It is true that his assertions have been thought to be exaggerated, and we are inclined to believe that this accusation, in a certain measure, is well founded, particularly the statements he sets forth of the gains made by mining, as well as with regard to the quantity obtained, in the returns of the precious metals. But this criticism, at the most, could only be applicable in a very inferior sense to the information which Humboldt has given of the total product of the mines, and exportation to Europe; so that, in making every concession for the imperfections which are ever inseparable from such investigations, it is always clear that the assertions of that traveller, and the inquiries upon which they are founded, ought certainly to be enumerated amongst the most precious contributions that have ever been made to the science of statistics.

According to Humboldt, the quantity of precious metals taken out of the mines of America is as follows:—

From 1492 to 1500,.	250,000 marks.	From 1600 to 1700,.	16,000,000 marks.
" 1500 to 1545,.	3,000,000 "	" 1700 to 1750,.	22,500,000 "
" 1545 to 1600,.	11,000,000 "	" 1750 to 1803,.	35,300,000 "

He presents, besides, the following recapitulation of the value of gold and silver taken from the mines of America from 1492 to 1803:—

Registered from the Spanish colonies,.....	$4,035,156,000
" " Portuguese "	684,544,000
Not registered from the first,.....	816,000,000
" " second, ...	171,000,000
Total,.....	$5,706,700,000

Of which amount, during those three hundred and eleven years, the proportions furnished were as follows:—

New Spain,...	$2,028,000,000	Chili,.....	$138,000,000
Peru and Buenos Ayres,.	2,410,300,000	Brazils,.....	835,500,000
New Granada,.....	275,000,000		

The computation which the same author forms of the annual product of the mines of the New World, at the commencement of the present century, is as follows:—

	Marks of gold.	Marks of silver.	Dollars.
New Spain,.....	7,000	2,338,220	23,000,000
Peru,.....	3,400	611,090	6,240,000
Chili,.....	12,212	28,700	2,060,000
Buenos Ayres,.....	2,200	481,830	4,850,000
New Granada,.....	20,500	.....	2,990,000
Brazil,.....	29,900	.....	4,369,000
Total,.....	75,217	3,460,840	43,500,000

Baron Humboldt has likewise calculated that the annual product of the European mines of Hungary, Saxony, and other places, and that of northern Asia, during the same period, amounted to nearly five millions more.

The quantities of gold which America yielded at the commencement of

this century, was, to the quantity of silver, in the proportion of one to forty-six; and in Europe, the proportion between gold and silver was as one to forty. The value of gold and silver, of equal quantities, was then in the proportion of fifteen to fifteen and a half of the latter, to one of the former. Finally, the quantity of gold produced has augmented, in comparison, to the quantity of silver.

From 1800 to 1810, the product of the American mines had a considerable increase, but, during the latter year, the contest commenced which resulted in the complete separation of the colonies from the mother country; and the convulsions and want of security caused by the struggle, likewise the proscription of the old Spanish families, the principal proprietors of the mines, who fled with the relics of their fortune to Spain, Cuba, Bordeaux, and other parts of the south of France, caused the abandonment of several mines, and a very extraordinary diminution in the amount of their product. We have not the means to calculate with precision the exact extent of this decadence. According to Mr. Ward, in Mexico, from the year 1811 to 1828, the average of the coined metals was only $10,000,000 a year; while, in 1810, it had risen to $26,500,000.

According to Mr. Jacob, (who, in a work upon the precious metals, reunited and compared all the information which existed upon this matter,) the total product of the American mines, including those of Brazil, during the twenty years terminating in 1829, may be estimated at $379,937,731, or $18,996,845 yearly; which is considerably less than half the amount which was produced at the beginning of this century.

The mines in Europe likewise declined during the twenty years we speak of; but there was a very material augmentation in the product of the mines in Russia. According to Humboldt, this product amounted to $5,898,039; so that, by forming a basis upon the calculations of Humboldt and Jacob, and calculating the total annual product of the American and European mines to be $24,894,884, there would result, from 1810 to 1829, inclusive, an annual deficit of $18,605,116, or of $372,102,320 in the total amount. We have seen another calculation, in the Quarterly Review, which makes the product of precious metals during that period ascend to $23,890,000 annually, or $455,620,000 in all; and to $1,164,000 for the demand of them, for all the objects of circulation, coining, arts, and consumption by wear and tear, loss, and other accidents, there still remains a deficit of $708,380,000;—that is to say, that this deficit may very well be calculated at $540,241,160, up to 1829. The diminution of gold, however, has not been so large as that of silver; as the decrease which was experienced in the first of those two metals in New Granada, the Brazils, and Chili, was compensated by the increase which they have had in Russia and the United States of America.

While the amount of these precious metals decreased, however, during the same twenty years, the commerce, wealth, civilization, and population of Europe had very much increased; and the latter ascended to 190,000,000 in 1810, and 210,000,000 in 1830. The circulating medium was augmented in that epoch, for reasons which we shall explain, in absolute quantity, at least 10 per cent. Storck, in correcting the calculations of Humboldt, computes that the circulation of metals in Europe, which in 1815 amounted to $1,320,000,000, in 1830 was increased to $1,600,000,000; being, in a great measure, on account of England withdrawing her paper money, and resuming cash payments; and likewise

through Russia, Austria, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and the United States, having followed her example; besides the consumption of gold and silver, wrought up into plate, jewels, and other artificial objects, having considerably augmented.

Gold and silver serve either for the use of coinage, or that of the arts. We are quite at a loss to learn in what proportion they were applied to these objects during the epochs given, as that proportion perpetually varied with the circumstances of each country; as, for example, the large or small issues of paper money, and the rate in which the use of the money is diminished, for the various methods which occur by banks, &c., to economize the circulation, according to the great or small riches of the people—*la moda en punto a vagilla*—the knowledge of public security which was enjoyed at the moment, and by a thousand other circumstances, all of which are subject to great and repeated mutations. According to Mr. Jacob, the value of precious metals which are annually destined for adornments, and other objects of splendor, may be computed as follows:—

Great Britain,	£2,457,221
France,	1,200,000
Switzerland,	350,000
The rest of Europe,	1,605,499
And that which is calculated for the same objects in America,	287,280
£ sterling,	5,900,000
Dollars,	27,764,705

The data on which this computation is founded, are in every way vague and unsatisfactory; so much so, that it is necessary to look upon it as a mere conjecture.

M. Chabrol, whose investigations are much more worthy of confidence than those of M. Chaptal, to which Mr. Jacob refers, calculates that the annual consumption of gold and silver in Paris, for the use of works of art, amounts to $2,910,400 every year; which corresponds with the elaborate calculation of M. Benoiston de Chateauneuf. These two authorities agree that the consumption of precious metals in Paris, in objects of art, is double that of the rest of France; so that we have, for the consumption of the whole kingdom, $4,365,000;—that is to say, £338,810 sterling a year less than the calculation of Mr. Jacob.

Persons who have good means of forming a correct opinion on this point, assert that the quantity which Mr. Jacob assigns for the consumption of Great Britain, is calculated with excess, in the same proportion as the consumption of France, or one-fourth. There is no doubt that, during late years, there has been a considerable increase in the consumption of gilded and plated articles; but much better evidence is wanted, than that which is now possessed by the public, to guarantee the conclusion that a sum so large as $11,353,292 could be appropriated to such objects.

The consumption of Switzerland, according to Mr. Jacob's statement, is probably correct enough; but the amount which he allots to all the other countries of Europe appears to us quite as exaggerated as that which he assigns to France and England. According to M'Culloch, the consumption will be as follows:—

Great Britain,	£1,842,916
France,	866,190
Switzerland,	355,000
The rest of Europe,	1,204,118
America,	300,000
	£4,563,224
Or dollars,	21,670,054

This computation is probably still too high. According to Humboldt, the total consumption of precious metals in Europe, for other objects besides that of coinage, amounts to $17,436,400; and, adding to this amount $1,411,764 55, for the consumption of America, the total sum would be $18,848,164, which is $2,821,889 less than the calculation of M'Culloch, and no less than $8,919,541 under that of Mr. Jacob.

According to the Mining Journal, the following statement of the produce of the precious metals appears:—"In forty years, from 1790 to 1830, Mexico produced £6,436,453 worth of gold, and £139,817,032 of silver; Chili, £2,768,488 of gold, and £1,822,924 of silver; Buenos Ayres, £4,024,895 of gold, and £27,182,673 of silver; Russia, £3,703,743 of gold, and £1,500,971 of silver. Total, £1,880,000,000 sterling, or £47,000,000 per annum."

Dr. Ure says—"The mines of America have sent into Europe three and a half times more gold than those of the ancient continent. The total quantity of silver was, to that of gold, in the ratio of fifty-five to one; a very different ratio from that which holds really in the value of those two metals, which, in Europe, is one to fifteen. Before the discovery of America, the value of gold approached nearer to that of silver; and in Asia the proportion is held to be only one to eleven or twelve.

Major Lowe, in his Dissertation on Pin-ang, remarks that "the difference in value of gold, between the Straits and England, is ordinarily 7 per cent in favor of the former. The market-value of pure silver," he adds, "may be stated at $12 75 per pound." Gold is widely disseminated through the Malay peninsula and Eastern archipelago, but we know of no silver mines.

Borneo is most famed for its product of gold; of the amount of which, annually, we have no correct data accessible.

Dr. Earle, in his Eastern Seas, says—"The amount of gold-dust imported at Singapore, from the western coast of Borneo, averages three thousand eight hundred ounces Troy," which he estimates at about one-tenth the produce of the mines.

It is Chaptal, we think, who states the annual product of gold in the Indian archipelago at four thousand seven hundred kilogrammes, or about one-eighth of the total production, which is calculated to be nearly thirty-six tons per annum.

The Friend of China, published at Hong-Kong, says that "gold is known to be produced in many parts of China and Thibet. We much mistake if it does not hereafter become of importance as an export. We are told that it is often offered in the coast trade; but the shroffs on board are very reluctant to take it in lieu of silver, at the proportionate rate, owing to the fear of its being adulterated. We have heard of China gold so taken, having realized at the Calcutta mint barely the price of silver.

"The gold, when seen here, is of various forms. It is called leaf gold,

when about an eighth of an inch thick. This sort is generally esteemed among the best, and gold in the form of bangles among the worst. As gold is not currency in China, it is to be presumed that the emperor will view with more complacency its *oozing out*, than he formerly did that of *sycee silver*."

Gold was first discovered, in the United States, in South Carolina, in 1804; and from that period until 1829, according to the American Almanac, about $109,000 had been found. It has since been discovered in other states. The following table exhibits the value of gold annually produced in the United States, from 1829 to 1832:—

	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
Virginia,	$2,500	$24,000	$26,000	$34,000
North Carolina,	134,000	204,000	294,000	458,000
South Carolina,	3,500	26,000	22,000	45,000
Georgia,	.....	212,000	176,000	140,000
Alabama,	.....	.....	1,000	.....
Tennessee,	.....	.....	1,000	1,000
Total,	$140,000	$469,000	$520,000	$678,000

This table shows a considerable increase between 1832 and 1829. We have no means at hand of ascertaining the quantity produced in those years. By the census of 1840, according to the official returns of the marshals, it appears that Virginia produced gold to the amount of $51,758; North Carolina, $255,618; South Carolina, $37,418; Georgia, $121,881; Alabama, $61,230; Tennessee, $1,500; Illinois, $200. Since 1840, or during the last year, we have seen it stated that our distinguished statesman, John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, had realized $100,000 from mines discovered on his estate in that state.

We have now a general mint at Philadelphia, and branch mints in Charlotte, North Carolina, Dahlonega, Georgia, and at New Orleans. It appears, from the official returns for 1842, that the coinage of the United States mint at Philadelphia, for that year, was as follows:—

Gold.		
From United States mines,	$273,587	
Old United States coins,	27,124	
Foreign coins,	497,575	
Foreign bullion,	158,780	
Jewelry,	20,845	
		$977,911
Silver.		
Bullion from North Carolina,	$6,455	
Foreign bullion,	153,527	
Mexican dollars,	1,085,374	
Dollars of South America,	26,372	
European coins,	272,282	
Plate,	23,410	
		1,567,429
Total coinage at Philadelphia,		$2,545,331

By this table, it appears that the value of the foreign coins sent to the United States mint in that city, is $2,193,910; nearly the whole of the coinage.

At the branch mint in Charlotte, N. C., in the neighborhood of the

gold mines, the amount coined in 1842 was $174,508. The salaries of the principal officers amount to $5,000 per annum.

At the branch in Dahlonega, Georgia, the amount coined in the same year was $323,372; and the salaries of the officers the same as at Charlotte.

At New Orleans, the amount coined in 1842 was $1,520,939, of which nearly the whole was foreign coin. The salaries of the officers are $10,500 per annum.

Art. VI.—PRESCOTT'S CONQUEST OF MEXICO.*

Deeds of blood may be rendered so interesting and exciting by the resolution and daring which they display, as to make us blind to their atrocity, in our admiration of the heroism by which they are accomplished. Of this character was the conquest of Mexico by Cortes. He was one of those mighty spirits which rise, at long intervals in the drama of man's history, to announce and effect some momentous change in the destinies of nations, and a higher mission than his has rarely been entrusted to man, for it was one upon which hung the destiny of a whole hemisphere. It is not surprising, therefore, that his life and exploits should have been simultaneously selected as a theme by two of our most distinguished authors. Mr. Prescott, in his preface, tells us how magnanimously his generous competitor withdrew from the field, and left the glorious harvest entirely to him; and truly magnanimous it was in Irving thus to yield to the only competitor who could have softened our regrets for the loss of his labors.

In one respect, Mr. Prescott has performed his task in a manner that must render him almost indifferent to criticism; he must feel that consciousness of fidelity, that can challenge the scrutiny of the keenest critical eye. Both in this, and his former work, he has shown how much greater accuracy is attainable in special, than in general histories. His Ferdinand and Isabella, after being submitted for six years to the ordeal of criticism, is now acknowledged, even by the learned men of Spain, to be more correct, in point of fact, than any account ever given of the reign of the most illustrious of their sovereigns, and of the most glorious period in their annals. Not less deeply is the stamp of authenticity impressed upon his new history; upon every page and line of it he has set this his own peculiar seal. In such a mass of testimony, gathered from manuscripts so difficult to be deciphered, few minds would be found capable of separating truth from falsehood as nicely as our author has done, and still fewer would have the patience and perseverance requisite for doing it as faithfully, A motive higher than ambition, the sacred love of truth, cou'd alone induce a scholar to undertake such a painful labor; but, as the pleasure of success is proportionate to the toil, Mr. Prescott, in this case, is sure of his reward. The settling of a great historical event, long involved in doubt and obscurity, is as noble an aim as a man of letters can propose to himself; and to do it as our author has done it, is one of the most meritorious services that can be rendered to learning and truth. We have

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* *History of the Conquest of Mexico.* By William H. Prescott. In three volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

spoken of this work chiefly with reference to its fidelity, because we consider that as the most indispensable requisite of a good history—the space assigned to this notice does not allow us to dilate upon its other great merits—the spirit and distinctness of the narrative, the beauty of the style, and a certain indescribable charm that the author contrives to draw from his own character, and infuse into every thing that he writes.

In the introductory view of the arts and civilization, we find an account of their modes of traffic, and of the character and condition of their merchants, which we give to our readers, both as a specimen of the work, and an extract particularly appropriate for our Magazine :—

AZTEC MERCHANTS.

"But the occupation peculiarly respected was that of the merchant. It proved so important and singular a feature of their social economy, as to merit a much more particular notice than it has received from historians. The Aztec merchant was a sort of itinerant trader, who made his journeys to the remotest borders of Anahuac, and to the countries beyond, carrying with him merchandise of rich stuffs, jewelry, slaves, and other valuable commodities. The slaves were obtained at the great market of Azcapozalco, not many leagues from the capitol, where fairs were regularly held for the sale of these unfortunate beings. They were brought thither by their masters, dressed in their gayest apparel, and instructed to sing, dance, and display their little stock of personal accomplishments, so as to recommend themselves to the purchaser. Slave-dealing was an honorable calling among the Aztecs.

"With this rich freight the merchant visited the different provinces, always bearing some present of value from his own sovereign to their chiefs, and usually receiving others in return, with a permission to trade. Should this be denied him, or should he meet with indignity or violence, he had the means of resistance in his power. He performed his journeys with a number of companions of his own rank, and a large body of inferior attendants, who were employed to transport the goods. Fifty or sixty pounds were the usual load for a man. The whole caravan went armed, and so well provided against sudden hostilities, that they could make good their defence, if necessary, till reinforced from home. In one instance, a body of these militant traders stood a siege of four years in the town of Ayutlan, which they finally took from the enemy. Their own government, however, were always prompt to embark in a war on this ground, finding it a very convenient pretext for extending the Mexican empire. It was not unusual to allow the merchants to raise levies themselves, which were placed under their command. It was, moreover, very common for the prince to employ the merchants as a sort of spies, to furnish him information of the state of the countries through which they passed, and the disposition of the inhabitants towards himself.

"Thus their sphere of action was much enlarged beyond that of a humble trader, and they acquired a high consideration in the body politic. They were allowed to assume insignia and devices of their own. Some of their number composed what is called by the Spanish writers a council of finance; at least, this was the case in Tezcuco. They were much consulted by the monarch, who had some of them constantly near his person, addressing them by the title of "uncle," which may remind one of that of *primo*, or "cousin," by which a grandee of Spain is saluted by

his sovereign. They were allowed to have their own courts, in which civil and criminal cases, not excepting capital, were determined; so that they formed an independent community, as it were, of themselves. And, as their various traffic supplied them with abundant stores of wealth, they enjoyed many of the most essential advantages of an hereditary aristocracy.

"That trade should form the path to eminent political preferment in a nation but partially civilized, where the names of soldier and priest are usually the only titles to respect, is certainly an anomaly in history. It forms some contrast to the standard of the now polished monarchies of the Old World, in which rank is supposed to be less dishonored by a life of idle ease, or frivolous pleasure, than by those active pursuits which promote equally the prosperity of the state and of the individual. If civilization corrects many prejudices, it must be allowed that it creates others."—Vol. i., pp. 147—150.

No work has ever appeared from the American press, combining more or higher qualities to recommend it to public attention, than the one now before us. It is not only a valuable and a delightful book—it is also a beautiful and a cheap book. Were we to write volumes upon it, the substance of all that we could say would be, it is an admirable book to read, an elegant book to look upon, and it ought to be a capital book to sell.

Art. VII.—AUCTION SYSTEM IN NEW YORK.

In most cases where the law interposes between the owner of property and the purchaser, it directs the sales to be made at public auction. The object is the protection of him whose property has been taken to satisfy the demands of his creditors. Although public sales have thus been, from time immemorial, adopted and sanctioned by legislators and judges, yet, as a system, public auctions for the extensive sale of imported goods have not found favor with the great mass of importers and jobbing merchants in this and other cities. The appointment of auctioneers has an early date in the history of the country, and laws have, from time to time, been passed, regulating the manner in which they should conduct their business, and fixing the amount of duties which they should pay to the government. The law of 1817, however, in the state of New York, created a new era in the history of auctions; and the appropriation afterwards, by the new constitution, of the duties to the payment of the state debts, gave character and permanency to the system. For many years after that, however, a fierce warfare was carried on between the importing and jobbing merchants and the auctioneers, and the smoke of which has hardly got entirely cleared away. Strong applications were made to the state legislature to repeal or alter the auction laws, but the state was reaping too great a harvest, and the solemn appropriation of the revenue from this source afforded good grounds for not interfering.

In the year 1829, the committee of the state senate, to whom the subject was referred, say in their report that "they assume it as a principle which, under existing circumstances, can hardly be questioned, that the revenue derived from sales by auction is too important in itself, and in its present destination too sacred, to be lightly given up." But it was said

that the auction system promoted the interests of non-residents at the expense of the resident merchant; and to this the committee of the assembly in the same year say,—that they beg leave to submit, whether non-resident consignors do not pay as great a tax as resident merchants. An agent receives $50,000 of goods on consignment, and sells at auction—if beyond the Cape of Good Hope, the duties are $500; from West Indies or Europe, $750; and if spirits, $1,000. The committee proceed to say, that if the system was abolished, "the state revenue would be the only loser, and the jobbing merchants the only gainer, by the change. It then rests with the legislature to decide whether they will stand with folded arms and suffer a revenue of $257,000 per annum to be wrested from them, without using every exertion in their power to preserve it."

The state legislature having been hostile to any change of the system, urgent memorials were addressed to Congress, praying that a heavy duty might be imposed, which would amount to a prohibition. Such memorials were addressed in 1817–18–19–20–21–24–28–29 and 31. Resolutions were adopted at the meetings of a denunciatory character. At the meeting in 1829, it was resolved that the auction system furnished facilities for concealment, encouraged smuggling, and induced perjury.

A committee of auctioneers, consisting of John Hone, James Boggs, John Haggerty, Cornelius W. Lawrence, and Joseph L. Shotwell, replied in an address to members of Congress, in which they say that the profits of their business is insignificant when compared with the value of reputation, and they deny that the system leads to fraud and perjury; and they add, "For ourselves, we most solemnly declare, that we are not aware of any circumstances connected with the auction business which renders its pursuit incompatible with honest pride and vigorous integrity. We consider that the times and circumstances have passed away in which the character of an auctioneer was justly the theme of ridicule to the writers of farces. It is not now his business to extol a pretended original, or a counterfeit gem, but he finds himself engaged in a profession which requires character and skill; and he is surrounded by the evidences that, with these aids, every post of honor, and every grade of social life, is within his reach."

In all anti-auction meetings strong grounds were taken, and it was insisted that the influence of the auction system was bad upon morals, and would also act most injuriously upon the growth and prosperity of the city of New York. We think, in this day of calm upon the subject, it would be no difficult matter to combat and refute most of the arguments used on these occasions. The real objections, we believe, consisted in the defect of other laws, the absence of cash duties, want of a warehousing system, and home valuation. At all events, the auctioneers of New York seem to have been a match for the whole of the anti-auction people; and we must ascribe their success, in some measure, at least, to the justness of their cause. We close this article with an extract from a letter from Abraham G. Thompson, Esq., of this city—the man to whom the auction system is, no doubt, greatly indebted, and who has lived to see the end of the war, and to enjoy the abundant fruits of his energy and industry. The letter was addressed by Mr. Thompson, some few years since, to his fellow-citizens, and was printed for private circulation. The object more especially in view was to promote the construction of a railroad from this city to Albany and Troy; and the history of the auction system, as having

had a favorable influence upon the previous growth of the city, is thus incidentally given:—

"The early inhabitants of the city of Boston impressed on that city an active, enterprising, commercial character. Previous to the revolution, her commerce was very considerable, and the Boston Port Bill was considered, therefore, a severe blow against that city. Immediately after the war her commerce revived, and from 1783 to 1812, Boston was the first importing city of the Union, and the New York merchants purchased there the most of their goods, especially of India and British manufacture. From 1812 to the spring of 1815, the period of the last war, Boston was comparatively a free port. It was supposed to be the policy of the British government not to blockade that port; but, whatever may have been the motives or causes, it is certain that Boston, during the war, was comparatively well supplied with both European and India goods, and through that city New England received her supplies. During the war, the English merchants established extensive depots of goods at Halifax, Bermuda, and other British possessions, that they might be ready to supply the American market on the declaration of peace. Immediately after the close of the war, these goods were sent into the United States. The greater portion of them found their way to New York, as the region of country previously and then trading with our city, was mostly destitute of goods of the description of those sent here by the English merchants.

"In the spring of 1815 I commenced the auction business in this city, in company with Mr. James Boggs, and during the residue of that year, and the whole of 1816, the sales at auction and private sale were very extensive, and brought large numbers of purchasers, and many new customers, to the city of New York. When, however, an equilibrium had been established, and when the country trading previously with New York had received ample supplies, then the trade began to return again to Boston, in and around which city was collected a greater part of the capital of the country engaged in commerce. The general decrease of business caused the importers and jobbers of New York to search for a cause, and they came to the conclusion that the auction business was injurious to their interests, and a strong effort was made to break down this branch of trade in New York. The mode by which the destruction of the auction business was to be accomplished, was the laying on of duties to the extent of 10 per cent, and which, in fact, would amount to a prohibition. Petitions to the legislature, praying for the imposition of such heavy duties, were got up, and numerously signed, and a committee was sent to Albany with them. In this emergency the auctioneers called a meeting, and I was deputed to go to Albany to attend to their interests. Soon after my arrival in Albany, I met Governor Tompkins, and he immediately commenced a conversation on the subject of duties, and a reform of the auction law. In answer to the charges which he said were preferred against the auction system, I replied that, in my opinion, the then existing duties ought to be diminished, instead of increased; and that, by so doing, the interests of the city of New York would be promoted, and the revenue of the state increased; and that I would draft a bill, which, if passed into a law, would not only produce said local effect, but also cause all the Atlantic cities to become tributary to New York; by which bill the duties should be diminished, and every piece of goods offered at auction should be positively sold, and to ensure a sale, the duty should always be paid upon every arti-

cle offered at auction. I had repeated interviews with the governor on the subject, and the final result was, the preparation of a law, under my supervision, which was afterwards passed, reducing and fixing the rates at a duty of 1 per cent on East India, and 1½ per cent on European, goods. In a conversation with the governor, I told him, that if such a reduction should take place, I would pay the first year, myself, $6,000, in advance, for the duties on sales of India goods alone, (being more than for any two years since 1783.) The result justified my calculations. Previous to the passage of the act of 1817, the duties were 1 per cent, 2 per cent, and 3 per cent, and the revenue to the state was small compared with after years. Soon after the passage of the bill in 1817, a Boston ship from the East Indies was sent to New York, (all previous cargoes having been sold in Boston,) the auction duties on the cargo of which amounted to upwards of $6,000, and the revenue to the state the first year, upon India goods, amounted to between $32,000 and $33,000. All the India vessels afterwards were sent here, and from that time to this, but one attempt has been made to sell a cargo of India goods east of New York, and that was a failure. The revenue from auction duties gradually increased, until it has amounted to between two hundred and three hundred thousand dollars per annum, a revenue which has aided materially the state of New York in her payment of the canal debt, and a revenue which grew out of a business which drew merchants or purchasers from all parts of our widely-extended country, which tended directly to enhance the value of houses, stores, and lots—multiply the business of the shipper, importer, and jobber, and which has filled our city with palaces, and made our merchants princes.

"In 1817, and after the passage of this law, as business begets business, also was commenced the first regular packet line between New York and Liverpool, by Isaac Wright and Francis Thompson. To *this* cause the success of New York was ascribed, and packet lines were established from Boston and from Philadelphia, but in neither instance were they successful. The truth was, that both in Boston and Philadelphia, the free and absolute sale of goods by auction was not encouraged. (It did not appear to be understood.)

"In Philadelphia, goods were allowed to be offered, and withdrawn, free from state duty, and the purchaser went to auction rooms of that city with no certainty of making his purchases. He was not certain that the goods would be sold to the highest bidder.

"In my opinion, the auction law of 1817 gave the first impulse to the extensive trade of this city, and followed, as it was afterwards, by the establishment of lines of packets, and the construction of the Erie canal in 1825, together with all the natural advantages of New York, it was eminently successful and advantageous.

"Governor Tompkins frequently, in after years, congratulated me upon the success of the auction bill, and spoke in warm terms of the obligation which the city of New York was under to those who originated it."

GENTLEMAN MERCHANTS.—It is said that, by a statute of King Athelstane, grandson of Alfred, it was provided that any merchant who made three voyages, on his own account, beyond the British channel, should be entitled to the privilege of a thane, or gentleman.

Art. VIII.—MERCHANTS AND SHOPKEEPERS OF GREAT BRITAIN IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

"In gospel phrase, their chapmen they betray,
Their shops are dens, the buyer is their prey."—*Dryden.*

During this time, "the aristocracy looked down upon trafficking with disdain, and elbowed it from the wall; and a fashionable comedy was not thought racy enough, unless some vulgar flat-cap was introduced, to be robbed of his daughter and his ducats by some needy and profligate adventurer.

"But, in spite of the ridicule of the court and theatre, the merchants and the shopkeepers went on, and prospered. The town shops were still little better than booths or cellars, generally without doors or windows."* —*Pepy's Diary.*

In lieu of gilded signs and tempting show-glasses, the master took short turns before his door, crying, "What d'ye lack, sir?" "What d'ye lack, madam?" and then he rehearsed a list of the commodities he dealt in. When he became weary, this task was assumed by his apprentice; and thus a London street was a Babel of strange sounds, by which the wayfarer was dinned at every step. The articles of a dealer were often of a very heterogeneous description. These were huddled in bales within his little shop, and in the midst of them the wife and daughter of the master, plying the needle or knitting-wires, and eyeing the passing crowd.†

In one of the plays of the time, a merchant explains to his idle apprentice the way in which he grew rich:—"Did I gain my wealth by ordinaries? No. By exchanging of gold? No. By keeping of gallants' company? No. I hired me a little shop, bought low, took small gains, kept no debt-book, garnished my shop, for want of plate, with good, wholesome, thrifty sentences; as, 'Keep thy shop, and thy shop will keep thee.' 'Light gains make heavy purses.' 'Tis good to be merry and wise.'"‡ But, although the shops and warehouses of the London traffickers were so humble, their houses were of a very different description; so that, even as early as the reign of James, the dwelling of a chief merchant rivalled the palace of a nobleman in the splendor of its furniture, among which cushions and window-pillows of velvet and damask had become common.

At the hour of twelve, the merchant usually repaired to the Exchange, and again at six in the evening. At nine, the *Bow-bell* rang, which was a signal for the servants to leave off work, and repair to supper and to bed; "a bell," says Puller, "which the master thought too soon, and the apprentice too late." It is amusing, however, to observe the jealous distinctions that still prevailed among the different classes. Only a great magnifico, or royal merchant, was worthy to prefix Master or Mr. to his name; and if he was addressed as the "*worshipful*," it was only when a soothing compliment was necessary; but the addition of *gentleman* or *esquire* would have thrown the whole court into an uproar. Even in such

* How much this is like Torbole, in Italy, as described by Goethe, 1786.
Isaac Walton's (the angler) first shop, at the Royal Exchange, was only seven and a half feet long, and five feet wide.

† Pepy's Diary.

‡ Westward, Ho!

a trifling matter as the lights in a street on a dark night, the same scrupulous distinctions were observed—the courtiers were lighted with torches,* merchants and lawyers with links, and mechanics with lanterns. The great mark of mercantile ambition was to be lord mayor. The lord mayor show was more than a Roman triumph in the eyes of a young civic aspirant.

In George Fox's Journal, under date 1653, he states—"The early Friends had more trade than other people, which made the rest more envious."

The citizens of London, as tradesmen, were always very anxious to remain *fixed* in one place. There is now living a Thomas Shelton, a brazier, who occupies the site on which stood the Boar's-Head tavern, Great-East-Cheap. He and his ancestors have lived there, and carried on that trade, ever since the great fire in 1666.

This family has strenuously followed a good old maxim, which may be found in Poor Richard's Almanac, 1758, viz:—

> "I never saw an oft-removed tree,
> Nor yet an oft-removed family,
> That throve so well as one that's settled be."

There is an eastern proverb, that "People resemble more the times in which they live, than they resemble their fathers." So, as trade and commerce had increased, and merchants and tradesmen had become more wealthy toward the close of the century, many of the most eminent city merchants and civic functionaries obtained and rejoiced in the honor of knighthood; but all who were of any respectability had the title of esquire or gentleman appended to their names. Many clerks assumed the same trifle. Thus Steele complained that England had become "*populus armigerorum*," a nation of esquires.†

London merchants yet lived in the city, having their counting-houses or warehouses fronting the street, their dwelling-houses at the back, splendidly furnished, and living luxuriously. At half-past one, the merchants repaired to the Exchange, and remained till three; but those of greater eminence preferred transacting business at Garraway, Robins, or Jonathan's coffee-houses. The first of these was frequented by the wealthiest merchants, and people of quality, who had city business; the second, by foreign bankers, and sometimes foreign ministers and ambassadors, who often bought and sold in the stocks. There were two comfortable French eating-houses near the Exchange—Kivet's and Pontac's;‡ but mere eating could not always satisfy those who bought and sold. There were several persons belonging to 'change, who sipped in the forenoon until they were neither sodden drunk nor facily sober, in which twilight state they transacted their business. These acquired the name of "*whetters*."§

Shopkeepers had now become so numerous, that they were obliged to resort to puffing, which assumed shapes not conceived at the present day. Sometimes a shopkeeper, scorning a direct puff advertisement of his articles, commenced, with apparent anger, thus:—"Whereas it has been maliciously reported that A. B. is going to leave off business;" and then would follow an earnest assurance that such was not the case;—"that he continued, as before, to sell the undermentioned articles, at lowest prices." A more ingenious plan was for H. Z. to advertise in the public prints that

* The gentlemen pensioners on court-days usually held torches.
† Tatler, No. 19. ‡ Mackay. § Tatler, No. 139.

a purse of gold, of large amount, with other valuables, had been, in the great hurry of business, dropped in his shop, and would be returned to the proper owner on describing its contents. Of course, every one was eager to deal with such an honest tradesman; and this visionary purse soon became to him a reality.

But the chief attraction and best advertisement was a sign-board, announcing name and occupation, with all the splendor of gilding and painting. Here is a sample of a jocose one:—

GEORGE WILSON, SIGN OF THE PHŒNIX.

HERE SOAP AND INK, STAMPS AND STICKING-PLASTER MIX
WITH SONG-BOOKS, AINSLIE'S SAUCE, TEA-TRAYS, AND CANDLESTICKS.

But many, to strike the eye more effectually, had emblazoned some animal or object sprawling upon the sign. When these signs or subjects were common, or when fancy became capricious, (for she is a fickle jade,) something more piquant was adopted; and, therefore, there now arose blue boars, black swans, red lions, flying pigs, and hogs in armor, swans with two necks, and such queer skimble-skamble stuff as would have put the Welch heraldry of Owen Glendower to the blush. Then there were multitudes of compound signs, such as the fox and seven stars, ball and neat's-tongue, dog and gridiron, sheep and dolphin, pig and whistle. These grotesque combinations seem to have originated in the apprentice quartering his master's symbol with his own, like the combined arms of a matrimonial heraldric alliance. In not a few instances, (they can be traced to the ignorance of the people, or the usual contraction or abbreviation of speech,) these comical emblems became most ridiculously perverted. Thus, the Bologne-mouth, the mouth of the harbor of Bologne, in France, became the bull and mouth. At this day, a noted travellers' inn in St. Martin's-lane, the Satyr and Bacchanals, became the devil and bag of nails; and the pious, praiseworthy, and puritanical legend, which they often used, "*God encompasseth us*," became, after being many times mouthed over by various provincialists, metamorphosed into the "goat and compasses."

These signs, which projected into the street, where they swung from their elegant and elaborately curled iron-work supports, creaked to and fro most hideously, from every blast; so that at night you might as well have a poor afflicted child in your bed-room as this noise, if you wanted to sleep. In the Gentleman's Magazine, is an account of the iron-work and other decorations of one, which cost £700.

Besides the regular tradesmen, London appears to have abounded with hawkers, whose occupation (to catch "*fool's pence*") and modes of dealing would now be indicted as a nuisance. In fact, they mostly tended to the grossest demoralization. Even Westminster Hall swarmed with female hawkers, like a modern bazaar. Ribands, gloves, and other fancy articles, were selling on one side of the building, while lands and tenements were being wrangled for on the other. On one side, a shrill-toned seamstress was detailing the beauties of her commodities, while a deep-mouthed crier was on the other side, commanding silence.*

There were many shops in which toys and trinkets were raffled for, and to these places gallants took their mistresses. These were imitated in humble life, so that every fruit-stall became a place for gambling, where

* Works of T. Brown.

the apple-munching young urchin became first initiated. Thimble-rigging was openly practised in the streets; street-pedlars publicly hawked about gin, and other strong liquors, on wheelbarrows; and the number of public-houses were more in proportion than now. In the year 1725, there were in the metropolis, exclusive of Southwark, six thousand one hundred and eighty-seven houses wherein Geneva, and other strong waters, were sold retail.

Art. IX.—THE CHINESE SMUGGLING-BOATS.*

These boats, named by the Chinese *Tcheong-long-teng*, are employed in the contraband (opium) trade in the Canton river, and its various branches. They take a certain number of chests of the drug from on board vessels anchored at Macao, in the Typa, Hong-Kong, and even at Whampoa, and they carry it for sale to the towns and villages in the vicinity. In whatever part of China the trade in opium may have been established, by common consent it has been determined to sell it for money; or rather, the English clippers will not deliver opium except for *sycee* silver, or dollars; but in all cases, the money is deposited by the buyer on the deck of the vessel, where the quality of the *sycee* is tested, and the dollars examined and weighed by the *shroff*, and it is not until the amount is agreed upon, and the money verified, that a delivery of the opium is made to the buyer, who, ordinarily, takes the chests without opening, or any examination. Occasionally, gold, in ingots, and small plates, are received in payment.

The inferior mandarins (whose silence and connivance are mostly purchased by means of considerable presents from the smugglers, but sometimes by the offer of so much per cent on all the transactions which may be made under their cognizance) are always disposed to give the smugglers a very great latitude. The mandarins, in fact, are well aware that the contrabandists would oppose to their authority or interference an energetic resistance in case of need, and that, besides being well armed, they would mutually succor each other, so that they would come best out of an encounter, unless attacked by very superior numbers.

The war by England, against the Celestial empire, has induced such a laxity and confusion in the public service and departmental administration of the Chinese, that, since a year and a half, Whampoa has become not merely the rendezvous of the Chinese smugglers, but also of European. They have there a special anchorage, near the mouth of *Junk river*, and now you are almost always certain to see there some dozen of cutters or schooners who openly vend the drug.

Although the Chinese smugglers do not precisely fear the mandarin boats, they always endeavor to avoid them, unless they have come to some agreement. If they, however, cannot escape being overhauled, they endeavor to negotiate, and will offer the mandarin and his crew a *cumsha* (a present) in order to obtain permission to continue their voyage. They do not fight except at the last extremity, or unless the demands of the mandarin are too exorbitant; or, what is still more rare, unless that functionary shows himself inaccessible to corruption, and will not traffic with

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* Translated from a China paper by a correspondent of the "Friend of China."

his duties. In this case a conflict will ensue, and if the smugglers think they shall get the worst of it, they endeavor to gain the shore, from which they are rarely very far, and abandon to the victor the boat and its cargo.

The smugglers go up as high as Canton, and even beyond, to *Fo-shan-foo*, with supplies of opium, which they unload clandestinely at night. They study the markets with great care, and endeavor to arrive with the drug at the places which they know are ill supplied, or of which the stocks are well nigh exhausted. They go sometimes into the districts of *Chin-Chew*, (province of *Fo-kien*,) on the east coast, from the shores of which, on going up, they always keep at but a little distance. The innumerable number of bays, coves, and creeks, which exist on this coast, offer them abundant shelter in case of bad weather.

On their return, they bring to Macao, or Hong-Kong, teas and silk, which they have bought either on the east coast at *Amoy*, *Foo-Chow*, or at *Fo-shan-foo*. Although they are not of equal quality to those furnished by the Hong merchants, yet the teas often realize advantageously, as they pay no export duty; and the English or American vessel which is laden with them has not, in that case, to submit to the hard necessity of going up to Whampoa, and there paying the enormous port charges exacted from all foreign vessels, by the avarice or ignorance of the Chinese.

We now present all the information, in detail, which we were able to obtain from on board a large smuggling-boat anchored in the bay of Hong-Kong.

This boat belonged to a rich Chinese merchant named Aqui, established for some time in the new English colony, and where this boat was built. Its construction employed forty carpenters during the whole of one month, and the entire cost, with rigging, &c., was $1600. These kind of boats, after three or four years, will require to be repaired, and if that be done, will last some three years more, say altogether about seven years.

The principal dimensions are—length, seventy cubits; breadth amidship, thirteen cubits; depth of the hold, five cubits; height of the main-mast, fifty cubits; height of the mizen-mast, thirty-five cubits; drawing water, three and a half cubits.

These are the dimensions of a smuggling-boat of the second class. One of the first would be seventy-eight cubits long. It is to be noted that the cubit is about one foot three inches English.

When the vessel is fully manned, the crew consists of one captain, one second captain, sixty rowers, and ten sailors, to steer and shift sails.

The greater part of the men on board this boat belong to the town of Whampoa, where the wives of those who are married reside. In every case they are not permitted to embark with their husbands, in the fear that they would cause them to lose courage in time of danger.

This vessel (or fast boat) is able to carry 350 chests of opium, or 400 chests of Congou tea.

From the profits of each voyage they always deduct the cost of provisions for the crew, which amounts to $6 per day, or $180 per month.

The first allowance made, the proprietor of the boat takes for himself half of the remaining sum; the other moiety devolves to the boat, and is divided among the crew in such proportions that the captain gets 100 per cent, and the second captain 50 per cent, beyond all the rest on board.

With a calm sea and a fair tide, this boat can go at the rate of six miles per hour, without using her sails. With a good breeze, she can sail ten or twelve miles in the same time.

During the night, the watch consists of six men, relieved every hour. As there is no watch or clock on board, they calculate the time by means of a *joss stick*, on which are four marks at equal distances. A watch extends from one mark to another; the *joss stick* is lighted at eight o'clock at night; they use two during the night; from whence it will be seen the last watch finishes at four o'clock in the morning.

The armament is composed in the following manner:—

1 long cannon, 12 pounder; 1 cannon, 6 pounder; 12 ginjalls, (small rampart pieces fixed on pivots;) 1 English musket; 20 pairs of double swords; 30 rattan shields; 200 pikes or lances, of diverse forms; 60 oars; 15 mats, to cover the vessel; 2 cables, one of bamboo, the other of coir, of about 50 fathoms length, (the latter kind is not ordinarily used by the Chinese;) 1 pump of bamboo tubes, (this is very rarely used) because, always being near the coast, if the boat makes water, they heave her down on the beach to caulk;) 1 good telescope, (European;) 1 compass.

All boats of this kind do not use the European compass, being generally so near shore the Chinese compass is found to be sufficiently exact for them.

Except at Hong-Kong, where the smugglers find themselves at perfect liberty to do as they please, the crews generally remain on board; a few only going on shore to purchase the necessary provisions.

In case of a quarrel on board, the disturbers are, by common consent, put ashore. The captain has not the power to strike a man, nor to put him in irons.

There are no regular articles of agreement—the captain gives merely some one or two dollars in advance to the sailors whom he selects. There are no medicines on board, and the sick or wounded are landed as soon as possible, to be nursed.

No man is permitted to smoke opium till the vessel is at anchor in some place where she is in safety.

All breakage or damage in manœuvring, or by bad weather, is at the risk and cost of the owner; but if a man breaks anything by negligence, he is obliged to pay for it.

The powder is in a wooden chest, in care of the captain; the cartridges are made of Chinese bamboo paper, resembling silk paper; it combines great strength and fineness. In ordinary times the smugglers never have more than a *picul* of powder on board, (say 133 lbs.,) but when the apprehend an attack from the mandarins or pirates, they put on board one or two piculs more.

Art. X.—RUSSIAN TRADE WITH CHINA.

The recent extension of the trade of Russia with China, which has lately become such an object of interest, is well described in a work recently translated from the Russian of Dr. Pallas and M. Muller, and entitled the *Conquest of Siberia*. In this there is a succinct account as well of the origin of the commerce in question, as of the extent to which it is at present carried on. The commencement of all connection between

the Russian and Chinese seems to have been towards the middle of the seventeeth century, when the Russians, spreading eastward through the territory on each side of the river Amoor, and subduing several independent Tongusian hordes, which the Chinese also designed to conquer, the two countries were brought into collision. Open hostilities broke out in 1690, terminating in a regular treaty, which was signed in 1689, by which the progress of the Russian arms was checked, and the foundation of a commerce was laid. The Russians lost by the treaty the navigation of the Amoor, but obtained in return a permanent trade with the Chinese. Under it many difficulties arose, and it was not till 1728 that the treaty of Kiachta was signed, which is the basis of all transactions carried on between the two countries at the present time. In that treaty it was declared that a caravan might go to Pekin every three years, on condition that it should not contain more than two hundred persons, and directly this caravan reached the frontier, notice was to be sent to the Chinese court, which would despatch an officer to meet the caravan, and conduct the persons to Pekin. Kiachta and Tuenchaitu, both of which are situated on the confines of Siberia, were appointed as places of resort, where a trade to the subjects of both nations was allowed.

The commerce, as it is now carried on, is entirely a trade of barter, the Russians being prohibited to export their coin. The Chinese merchant comes first to Kiachta, and examines the merchandise he wants in the warehouse of the Russian trader, and when the price is settled, the goods are sealed in the presence of the Chinese. Both parties repair to Maimiatchin, where the Russian chooses his commodities, and leaves behind a person of confidence, who remains in the warehouse till the Russian goods are delivered, when he returns with the Chinese merchant to Kiachta.

Furs and peltry are the most important articles of importation on the side of the Russians. Most of these come from Siberia and the newly discovered islands; but, as a sufficient supply is not thus obtained for the Kiachta market, foreign furs are sent to St. Petersburg, and are thence despatched to the frontiers. Cloth, the coarser sort of which is manufactured in Russia, while the finer sort principally comes from England, Prussia, and France, is the second article of exportation. Camlets, calimancoes, druggets, white flannels, stuffs, velvets, coarse linen, Russia leather, tanned hides, glassware, hardware, tin, talc, cattle, sporting dogs, provisions, and meal, are the remaining articles, though meal is less imported than formerly, from the Chinese having extended their agriculture. On the other hand, the Chinese supply the Russians with silk, both manufactured and raw, cotton, teas, porcelain, furniture, toys, artificial flowers, tiger and panther skins, rubies, coloring matters, canes, tobacco, rice, candies, rhubarb, and musk.

Trade with China is found to be exceedingly profitable to Russia, as she is able to dispose of such furs as are of so little value that they would not pay the expense of carriage from the east of Siberia to European Russia; while the richer furs, which are sold very dear to China, would not find purchasers in Russia on account of their expensiveness. They are also able to obtain from China, in exchange for these articles, which would otherwise be unprofitable, many goods which they would be unable to purchase at any advantageous rate from the European powers. The gross amount of the average trade, including such articles as are smuggled, is

estimated at 4,000,000 rubles; the calculation for the present year, in which the contraband trade is omitted, giving 2,868,333 rubles.

Total of foreign exports, from 1839 to 1841, exclusive of corn from Russia:—

Years.	Silver rubles.	Years.	Silver rubles.
1838,.....	70,562,252	1840,.....	68,704,971
1839,.....	69,640,761	1841,.....	76,999,676

The increase which took place in 1841 is accounted for by the extraordinary development of the relations between Russia and China during that year. The latter had never before sent so large a quantity of tea to the market of Kiachta, so that the importation of that article, although very considerable during the preceding years, augmented in a remarkable proportion in 1841.

Total of imports, from 1838 to 1841:—

Years.	Silver rubles.	Years.	Silver rubles.
1838,.....	69,693,824	1840,.....	76,726,111
1839,.....	69,993,589	1841,.....	79,429,490

The gold and silver ingots or coin are not included in the above amounts. In 1841, the exports of precious metals were 4,023,728 silver rubles, and the imports 9,347,867.

Linen Trade with China.—In the present depressed state of the linen trade, it may be interesting to many of your readers to know that the Russians have a considerable and increasing trade in linens with the Chinese. In the appendix to Lord Londonderry's "Tour in the North of Europe," (1836–7) we find the following statement of exports of Russian manufactures to China, at three different periods, from the Russian town of Kiachta, viz:—

	1825. Rubles.	1830. Rubles.	1835. Rubles.
Linens,.....	70,119	139,231	203,115
Cotton stuffs,.....	1,248	84,523	933,827
Cloths, ...	268,521	1,434,550	2,266,641

Fire Insurance.—Having taken possession of your premises, let your first care be to insure them, as well as your stock in trade, against fire. This is one of the duties most incumbent upon a young tradesman. If the house which he inhabits, as well as all the goods in his shop, were positively his own, (that is to say, were actually paid for,) it would be one of the most absurd things upon earth to neglect the means of providing a remedy against the overwhelming consequences of fire, more especially when such remedy is attainable without the slightest difficulty or trouble. But in the other, and more common case, where the goods are not *morally* his own, inasmuch as his creditors have not been paid for them, the neglect of this precaution becomes absolutely *criminal*. If a tradesman who has obtained goods upon *credit*, hesitates or neglects to insure them against fire, and they should afterwards be consumed, and he be unable to pay for them in consequence, however much others may mince the matter, the simple fact will be, that he has negatively robbed those who confided in him. Neglect this precaution, and I should feel no pity for you if your stock and furniture were all destroyed by fire!

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

The state of business and money matters remains very nearly the same as at the date of our last report. The different channels of mercantile dealing have preserved a regular degree of activity, and all give symptoms of resting on a basis so broad and sound, that a long period of advancing prosperity may with confidence be looked forward to. In our last number we gave a statement of the affairs of the banks of New York, wherein the deposites were given at a point higher than almost ever before. The specie, although very high, had fallen in some degree from the point which it had reached in August. The institutions are now engaged in making up their returns to the 1st proximo, in accordance with the law requiring quarterly statements of their affairs. It is expected that the February return will show some further diminution in the amount of specie on hand, because, although the importations of the precious metals from abroad have been reasonably large, yet the demand for the western states, where the circulation has continued very limited, and for the south, where the state of the crops, particularly sugar and cotton, have engendered great speculation, has been, from peculiar circumstances, larger than usual. These circumstances have not, however, produced any increase in the value of money, which still continues as during the past year, easy to be procured at 3½ a 4 per cent, on short, sound paper; and on real estate, for a term of years, at less than 6 per cent, and will probably continue cheap until the current of business again runs into sales of goods on long credit, by persons whose capitals are not equal to it, and who, in consequence, will be driven upon bank loans for assistance. As business is now conducted, most operators have capital sufficient to conduct their business, and at the same time keep fair deposites with the banks. As long as such is the case, the demand for money at certain seasons for the purchase of the produce of certain sections, produces no scarcity; but, after having performed its functions, it returns in increasing volume to the centre of commerce. The most considerable movement in commercial pursuits has been a great speculation in cotton, based upon causes which we pointed out somewhat in detail in our number for October. We then, after entering into some particulars in relation to the position of the cotton crop, remarked as follows:—

The cheapness of the raw material, and the abundance of money in England throughout the year, have, as we explained in our last, much increased the consumption; and a new year is now opening, with *every prospect of a diminished production*, arising from a backwardness of the spring. A great change has, however, taken place in the management of the cotton crop. The banks of the south, which formerly were a powerful agent in assisting speculation, by enabling speculators and planters to hold, have now, for the most part, ceased to exist, more particularly in the large states of Mississippi, Louisiana, and Alabama, where 75 per cent of the whole crop is produced. Consequently, those enormous reservoirs of funds necessary to operate in so extended a market, are to be found only in the accumulations of the northern cities, and in Liverpool. Just at this juncture, however, *money at both points is exceedingly abundant, and very likely to find employ in fostering speculation* on grounds as plausible as those presented by the cotton market.

This was our view in the month of September, at the close of a year which had yielded a crop of 2,378,875 bales. The estimates for the present crop then ranged over 2,000,000 bales. They have since been reduced as low as 1,500,000 bales, and the highest figures now do not go over 1,750,000 bales. The speculation, which we then indicated as possible, has since run very high, and enormous sums of money have been applied to the holding of the cotton. This movement has produced the following situation of the crop, as compared with former years.

RECEIPTS, STOCKS, AND EXPORTS OF COTTON, IN THE UNITED STATES, FOR SEVERAL YEARS, FROM SEPTEMBER 1, TO JANUARY 16, EACH YEAR.

	1839. Bales.	1840. Bales.	1841. Bales.	1842. Bales.	1843. Bales.	1844. Bales.
Receipts,.....	379,035	360,609	525,569	715,467	872,226	669,029
Exports to Great Britain,..	92,892	119,417	131,074	240,146	318,107	161,722
" France,.....	83,688	32,659	83,495	82,119	102,457	70,291
" other ports,.....	10,812	16,003	25,605	27,178	36,067	15,155
Stock,.....	210,747	174,587	285,585	318,531	335,571	376,949

This shows a great accumulation of stock, and diminished export. An effect peculiar to the latter circumstance has been a short supply of foreign exchange, and consequently a high range of prices, which have for a length of time rated from 8½ to 9½ per cent, against 5½ a 6 per cent, at the same period last year. Notwithstanding this, no specie of any importance has been exported. This is partly owing to the fact, that money in England being exceedingly abundant, the leading houses have been enabled to draw and supply the market at full 9 per cent. The proceeds of those bills here have found employment in the holding of cotton, the stock of which in this market is not far from 70,000 bales, worth $2,500,000. The prices of cotton in all the ports of the United States have risen rapidly, and have constantly been in advance of those in Liverpool, the point of sale; and it is held in expectation of an advance of 1½*d.* in Liverpool, or until fair cotton reach 7*d.*, when, in all probability, large shipments will be made, and the consequent increased supply of bills may reduce the rates, until renewed imports of specie are effected, unless the spring imports of goods should create a demand sufficiently large tosustain the rates for bills.

The large imports of specie during the past year, and its dissemination in general circulation up the valley of the Mississippi from New Orleans, is producing its natural effects in raising the prices of produce, while also the prices of domestic and imported goods in the northern and eastern cities have also improved under the diminished imports of last year, and the rising demand for consumption. It is matter of doubt, however, whether those prices will so far improve, as to induce extensive imports under the heavy expenses at present incident upon them. From September, 1842, up to January, 1844, $13,200,000 in specie arrived at New Orleans. The specie in the vaults of the New Orleans banks in September, 1842, was $1,504,000. It is now $7,899,000, showing an increase of $5,395,000, which, deducted from the receipts, gives $7,805,000 which has passed into general circulation. Of this amount, the large sum of $4,568,000 has passed through the mint, and been converted into the national coin in the following proportions of denominations.

COINAGE OF THE MINT AT NEW ORLEANS—1843.

	GOLD. Pieces.	Value.		SILVER. Pieces.	Value.
Quarter eagles,....	368,002	$920,005	Half dollars,.....	2,268,000	$1,134,000
Half- " ...	101,075	505,375	Qr. "	968,000	242,000
Eagles, ...	175,162	1,751,620	Dimes,.....	150,000	15,000
Total,.....	644,239	$3,177,000	Total,.....	3,386,000	$1,391,000

This coinage, as compared with the whole amount coined at that branch since its establishment, is as follows :—

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
1838 to 1841,.....	$326,190	$1,533,503	$1,859,693
1842,.....	405,500	890,250	1,295,750
1843,.....	3,177,000	1,391,000	4,568,000
Total,.....	$3,908,690	$3,814,753	$7,722,343

The coinage for the past year has been 50 per cent more than for the five preceding

years, and double the coinage of the principal mint at Philadelphia, for the year 1842, and 25 per cent more than the average coinage of the Union for the last twenty years. A large proportion of the coinage has been of the smaller gold pieces and of silver change, affording a very seasonable supply of a sound circulating medium. The whole amount of coin, near $8,000,000, which has passed into circulation, is larger than the whole paper circulation of the banks at that city at any time, and is producing the most favorable effects. The following is a table of prices of produce at New Orleans for several periods :—

PRICES OF PRODUCE AT NEW ORLEANS, SEPT. 1, 1842, APRIL 18, 1843, AND JANUARY, 1844.

Articles.	September, 1842.		April, 1843.		January, 1844.	
Cotton—inferior,.....	5 a 5½		4 a 4¼		7¼ a 8	
ordinary,.....	6 a 6½		4¾ a 5		8 a 8½	
middling,.....	6¾ a 7½		5¼ a 5½		8¾ a 9	
middling fair,.....	8¼ a 8½		6¼ a 6½		9¼ a 9½	
Sugar—ordinary, ...	2 a 3		3½ a 3¾		4¾ a 5¼	
middling, ...	3½ a 4½		3¾ a 4		5½ a 5¾	
prime,.....	5 a 5½		4½ a 4¾		6 a 6½	
Coffee—Havana, ...	8¾ a 9¼		7½ a 7¾		6 a 7	
Brazil,.....	8¾ a 9½		7⅞ a 7⅞		6½ a 7	
Laguayra,.....	8¾ a 9½		7¾ a 7⅞		7 a 7¼	
Pork—mess,.....	$6 50 a 7 00		$7 50 a		$9 00 a 9 25	
M. O.,.....	5 50 a 6 00		6 50 a 6 75		8 00 a 8 25	
prime,.....	4 50 a 5 00		6 00 a 6 50		7 75 a 7 87½	
Bacon—hams, best,.....	4 a 5		4½ a 5		4½ a 5	
" canvassed,...	4½ a 5½		6½ a 7		5 a 5½	
sides,.....	3 a 3½		3½ a 3¾		3 a 3⅜	
shoulders,.....	2 a 2¼		2⅝ a 2⅞		2¼ a 2¼	
Molasses—common,.....	9 a 11		10½ a ...		... a ...	
fair to good,.....	12 a 14		15 a 15½		22½ a 23	
Flour—western, superior,...	4 50 a 4 75		3 75 a 4 00		. ... a 4 37½	
Lard—kegs, good,.....	6 a 7		4¾ a 5¾		5 a 5¾	
Bagging—Kentucky,.....	12 a 13		11½ a 15		12 a 13½	
Rope—Kentucky,.....	5½ a 6		4 a 7		3 a 5½	
Whiskey—rectified,.....	15 a 15½		15 a ...		21 a ...	
Salt—Liverpool,.....sack	1 37½ a 1 40		1 06 a 1 15		1 50 a	
Lime—Thomaston,...barrel	75 a 87½		1 25 a		1 25 a	
Corn—in sacks,.....bushel	32 a 35		33 a ...		36 a 38	
Oats— " ..... "	28 a 30		22 a 23		28 a 34	

These figures indicate the change which is taking place in the means of the agricultural producers, and consequently of their ability to buy goods for the coming year. In former years, under the influence of bank loans, large purchases of goods were made beyond the ability of the producers to pay for them from the products of their year's industry. Those banks have, for the most part, ceased to operate, and the purchases now depend entirely upon the profits of industry. These, on the great staples of the south, will this year be large.

The movement of specie south last year resulted in an improved business in the summer and fall following, and in the recovery of a large amount of debts due the north and east. This movement is now being repeated to a greater extent, and with the diminished indebtedness of those sections, and the increased profits consequent upon the cheapness of production, and the advanced prices in Europe of the great staples, there is every probability of much improved purchases; not upon credit, enhancing the demand for money in the northern and eastern cities to supply dealers in the means of giving credit, but in return for actual wealth sent forward.

The import of the precious metals, which has been so large during the past year, has been partly in consequence of the great want of a circulating medium experienced by those states where the banking system has been nearly annihilated, and their issues

withdrawn from circulation. At New Orleans, where a large proportion of the precious metals arrive, a branch mint is located, and the foreign coins go promptly and without expense, through it into general circulation. At the other leading cities, as Boston and New York, where immense sums have been received, there is no means of coinage; and notwithstanding the immense quantity of specie lying idle in the banks, even a moderate amount of American coin cannot be procured at all, and small sums only at a premium of ¼ a ½ per cent. The nearest mint is Philadelphia, and the expense of sending gold thither is about ½ per cent. This fact forms an almost insurmountable bar to the procurent of a national coin. The most of the English gold which arrives here is also light. The Bank of England recently gave notice that it would pay £3 17*s.* 6½*d.* per ounce for sovereigns; which, with the expense of conversion, is equal to the price of £3 17*s.* 9*d.* for bullion, which will be the mint price hereafter, instead of the former one of £3 17*s.* 10½*d.* Nations in general do not recoin their own money except upon a change of the standard. England has, however, presented several exceptions. Elizabeth restored the purity of the coin in 1560, after it had been shamefully debased by her father for his own profit. In 1774, a general recoinage took place, and parliament voted £2,500,000 to make good the deficit. From that time up to 1816, no silver was coined, because it became more valuable on the continent in France, where it was the standard, than in England, according to its legal proportionate value to gold. The various changes in the silver coinage of England are instructive. During the weak reign of Stephen, every baron exercising the prerogative of royalty, coined money as he pleased, and great evils grew out of that state of things, until Henry II. coined a sufficient quantity of money, and suppressed the issues of the barons. Whatever may have been the divisions of money before the conquest, ever since that period these have remained the same, viz: twelve pence the shilling, which first became a coin in 1504, and twenty shillings the pound sterling, which was never an actual coin, but troy pound weight, or twelve ounces of silver, until the reign of Edward I., since when it has been gradually diminishing in value. The following table shows the changes which the coin has undergone.

ALTERATIONS IN THE SILVER COINAGE OF ENGLAND, FROM THE CONQUEST TO 1816.

	Fine Silver.		Alloy.				
	oz.	dwt.	oz.	dwt.	£	*s.*	*d.*
Before 1300, a pound of standard silver contained...	11	2	0	18	1	0	0
1300— 28 Edward I.,.....	11	2	0	18	1	0	3
1344— 18 Edward III.,.....	11	2	0	18	1	2	2
1346— 20 Edward III.,.....	11	2	0	18	1	2	6
1353— 27 Edward III.,.....	11	2	0	18	1	5	0
1412— 13 Henry IV.,.....	11	2	0	18	1	10	0
1464— 4 Edward IV.,.....	11	2	0	18	1	17	6
1527— 18 Henry VIII.,.....	11	2	0	18	2	5	0
1541— 34 Henry VIII.,.....	10	0	2	0	2	8	0
1545— 36 Henry VIII.,.....	6	0	6	0	2	8	0
1546— 37 Henry VIII.,.....	4	0	8	0	2	8	0
1549— 3 Edward VI.,.....	6	0	6	0	3	12	0
1551— 5 Edward VI.,.....	3	0	9	0	3	12	0
1551— } 1552— } 5 Edward VI.,.....	11	1	0	19	3	0	0
1553— 1 Mary,.....	11	0	1	0	3	0	0
1560— 3 Elizabeth, ...	11	2	0	18	3	0	0
1601— 43 Elizabeth, ...	11	2	0	18	3	2	0
1816— 50 George III.,.....	11	2	0	18	3	6	0

During the reign of Henry VIII. it will be observed, that that ruthless tyrant, for his own profit, debased the coin in a manner that brought the greatest evils upon the people of England. In 1551, this depreciation reached its lowest point, when the £ was worth

no more than 4*s.* 6*d.* of the present money. This produced the greatest confusion. Sellers were never sure of what they should get for their goods, and the whole foundations of society were sapped. Under Elizabeth the coin was restored, and so continued down to 1816. During the French war, however, England became drained of silver, because its market price was higher than its legal value. In 1816, the number of shillings coined from a pound troy of silver, 925 thousandths fine, was increased from 62 to 66. This was equivalent to an advance of 6½ per cent upon the old coinage, and being higher than the market price of silver, effectually prevented the English coinage from leaving the country. The whole coinage of the United States since the formation of the government, has been short of $90,000,000, of which $15,000,000 has been re-exported. This would leave $75,000,000 as the whole national currency of the United States. The coinage of England since the reformation of 1816, has been £72,000,000, or $350,000,000. The whole coinage, from the accession of queen Anne, 1702, to 1840, was, £160,000,000, or $800,000,000 of gold, $60,000,000 of silver. This creates a national currency, which has become so cosmopolite in its character, that when exported, it returns to England in the shape in which it left. The specie currency of this country has almost all been imported, and nearly one-half the imports have been re-exported, because of the want of the means at the proper point to convert it into the national coin. Indeed, so careless has been the American government of its prerogative in this particular, that many of the standing laws recognize the foreign coin still in circulation among us in preference to that prescribed by Congress. The post office laws are an instance. The postages are imposed to accommodate Spanish eighths and sixteenths circulating among us at a depreciation of 20 per cent below their actual value, rather than the dimes and half dimes of our national coin. No currency in the world was ever so vitiated, or called so loudly for reform, as the silver in circulation of the United States at this moment. The remedy should come by the operation of trade, after the government has located at its proper place the means of re-coinage.

The credit of the United States yet remains under a cloud. The legislatures of the delinquent states are nearly all in session; but as yet, from no quarter, are there any indications of an earnest desire to settle the outstanding debts. The messages of the governors of the several delinquent states all express strongly the language of honesty, and earnestly advise some means of immediate compromise or payment. The principal of these are Maryland, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Indiana, and Louisiana. The position of the two former is the more disgraceful, that they have received the full value of their bonds, are in possession of the public works built with the money, and are fully able to pay their debts; yet they make no movement towards doing so. The state of Illinois has made a great effort at compromise. Ex-Governor Davis, of Massachusetts, the agent of the foreign bondholders, has for some time been on the spot; and, having investigated the state of the canal, has made a favorable report. This will insure the commencement of operations, and the expenditure of some $450,000 in prosecuting the canal, prior to the meeting of the next legislature, should no extra session be called. The great duty of the next session, and one on which the honor and prosperity of Illinois depends entirely, is the levying of a small tax towards the payment of her debts. The valuation of taxable property in Illinois is $69,000,000. 1½ mills on this, will give $103,000, or sufficient to pay 2 per cent on the whole improvement debt. The imposition of this tax will insure the completion of the canal, and the restoration of the honor of the state, as well as the mercantile credit of its citizens. This tax should, however, by all means, be permanent—at least for ten years—that both landholders and immigrants may know exactly on what they are to depend, and that the settlement of the state may not be retarded by uncertainty in relation to the burdens to be imposed upon its citizens. The debt of Maryland is as follows:—

STATE OF THE PUBLIC DEBT OF MARYLAND, DECEMBER, 1843.

Total amount of public indebtedness, January, 1841,	$15,214,761
Amount of interest accrued from that date to November 30, 1843,	1,171,873
Total amount of debt November 30, 1843,	$16,386,634
Annual demands against the treasury, on account of the debt, over and above the receipts from internal improvement companies,	626,821
Amount of debt, November, 1844,	$17,013,455
The current expenses of the state amount to	$450,000
Annual interest,	626,821
Total annual charge,	$1,076,821
Tax, 25 cents on $100, on a taxable property of $178,108,496,	445,271
Deficit,	$631,550
Arrears of interest,	650,000
To be raised by taxation,	$1,281,550

The greatest difficulty under which the state labors is, apparently, the want of some uniform system of assessment, by which the burden will fall equally upon the community.

The debt of Pennsylvania is as follows:—

PUBLIC DEBT OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Total stock debt,	$36,469,398
Arrears of interests,	2,614,601
Total debt,	$39,083,999

This debt bears interest as follows:—

		Annual charge.
Permanent loan, at 6 per cent,	$1,946,944 33	$116,816
" loans, at 5 "	32,683,189 90	1,634,159
" loan, at 4½ "	200,000 00	9,000
Relief notes, at 1 per cent,	1,467,628 86	14,678
" 6 "	171,636 00	10,280
Arrears of interest due to our own loanholders in August, 1842, and February and August, 1843, at 6 per cent.,	2,614,601 53	156,876
	$39,084,000 40	$1,941,799
Due domestic creditors,	206,461 00	
Total,	$39,290,461 40	

The revenue and expenditure of the state has been as follows, for 1834:—

	Revenue.		Expenses.
Canal tolls,	$1,019,401	Canal expenses,	$747,263
Sales of stocks,	1,395,411	Government expenses,	295,480
United States,	60,313	Education,	408,694
Tax,	553,911	Domestic debt,	1,769,245
Other taxes,	375,198	Other expenses,	278,462
Total,	$3,404,434	Total,	$3,499,144

The sales of stocks, and the receipt from the United States, which are extraordinary, amount to $1,455,724. The domestic debt paid amounts to $1,769,245; deducting these items, there remains $1,948,710 ordinary revenue, to meet $1,729,899, which is a surplus of $218,811, which, taken from the annual interest, leaves $1,722,988 to be

made good by taxation. The governor, however, by reducing expenses, and providing for the collection of the whole tax levied, makes the deficit on the interest $850,000. The unequal manner in which the property of the state has been assessed, and the unfaithfulness of the state officers, may be the chief causes of the state failures. The taxes levied, and the amount collected for each of the last three years, has been as follows:—

Years.	Tax levied.	Collected.	Arrears.	Paid for education.
1841,.....	$416,794	$33,292	$383,502	$365,766
1842,.....	659,512	486,635	172,877	315,372
1843,.....	945,000	553,911	391,089	408,694
Total,.	$2,021,306	$1,073,838	$949,468	$1,089,832

This indicates a wrong system. The state has paid out more for education than the whole amount of state tax received into the treasury. The governor suggests an entire revision of the modes of assessment, when it is thought that a small augmentation of the taxes, with suitable economy, will enable the state to pay.

The debt of the state of Indiana amounts to $15,088,000, and no provision has, or according to the governor, can be made for its liquidation. The state fell into the error of issuing bills of credit, called treasury-notes, to a large amount. These are now circulating in the state, at a large discount; and as they are receivable for state dues, form almost the only medium in which the revenue is received. The revenue levied and collected last year, amounted in these notes, to $240,000, which scarcely sufficed to meet a current expense of $90,000. As the system of issuing these notes has been practised, it must take a long time to absorb the amount outstanding. The messages, both of the old governor and the new, avow the inability of the state to pay its debts. This may be true, with regard to the whole of it; but they surely can pay something, and by so doing, in some degree regain their honor.

The acknowledged debt of Michigan, according to the message of the governor, is as follows:—

DEBT OF MICHIGAN.

The whole acknowledged indebtedness of the state, on account of the five million loan, including $200,000 loaned for the Allegan and Marshall, and the Ypsilanti and Tecumseh railroad companies, with the interest, for which new bonds have been issued, will be, on the 1st day of July, 1845, altogether,..... $2,987,005 27

The other outstanding bonds of the state are—

For general fund,.....	100,000 00
penitentiary,.....	60,000 00
delinquent taxes, (originally $31,000,)	27,000 00
university,.....	100,000 00
Detroit and Pontiac railroad company,.....	100,000 00
Palmyra and Jacksonburg railroad company,.....	20,000 00
Total,.....	$3,394,005 27
Interest improvement warrants issued and authorized,.....	570,000 00

After July, 1845, the interest payable annually of the foreign debt of the state, will be $105,440, which must be provided for by taxation.

The governor of Louisiana earnestly presses the legislature to act promptly in devising the means of extricating the state from her embarrassed situation.

In all these states, it appears that the evil of bankruptcy is felt to be a great and disgraceful one. There wants but a little moral energy to take advantage of the advancing prosperity of the people, and the means will be acquired and applied to the extinguishment of the debt, with far less burden than is now anticipated.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

MARINE POLICY OF INSURANCE.

In the Superior Court, New York, Judge Oakley presiding, an action was brought by Samuel Moody *vs.* the Sun Mutual Insurance Company, on a marine policy of insurance, in which it appeared that the ship Sophia, belonging in part to Captain Moody, was in this port, and was insured with defendants for $6,000, on a time policy, for one year. Other policies were effected with eastern companies to the amounts of $6,000 and $4,000, making, in all, $16,000, at which amount the ship was then valued. It was proved that the ship was then seaworthy, having been recently refitted in this port, and all necessary repairs put upon her. She sailed from this port with a competent crew and experienced officers, and went to St. Josephs, where she took in about 100 bundles of hay, and sailed from that place for New Orleans, with the intention of there procuring a cargo, and going from that port to Europe.

When near New Orleans she grounded near a barren island, and the passengers and crew quit her; and the captain the next day proceeded to New Orleans and wrote to the underwriters, abandoning the vessel. In the meantime the ship had floated, and was taken in tow by a steamboat, which brought her to New Orleans on the evening of the day which Captain Moody wrote the letter of abandonment to the underwriters, and before he had mailed his letter, and he informed them she had arrived there in possession of the salvors. In answer to this letter from Captain Moody, the underwriters wrote to him that he must settle with the salvors and repair the vessel, and that their agent there would assist in doing it. The salvors had, in the meantime, libelled the vessel in the Admiralty Court, and claimed salvage.

Captain Moody made several attempts to compromise with them, but the lowest sum they would take was $4,500, which was thought too much, and the agent of the underwriters told Captain Moody that he should bond the vessel; in consequence of which, an order was obtained from the court to appraise her, and she was valued at $4,000. Moody told the underwriters' agent that he had not money to bond her, and the vessel was sold for $4,000, and bought by Zachane & Co., who said that if any person bid against them they would have given $5,500 for the vessel.

The plaintiff contended that, in settling the salvage loss, they had a right to charge against the underwriters the sum which it would have been necessary to pay for the vessel at the sale, which would have been $5,500 if the owners purchased the vessel, and therefore the salvage to be allowed them ought to be one-half of $5,500; that, had they paid the salvage and required possession of the vessel, they would have a right to charge the salvage; but $5,500, together with the costs of suit, they would also have had a right to charge 2½ per cent commission for the money necessary to be obtained by the captain to pay the salvage, which was a charge that was customary in such cases, and was always allowed; and also that they would have a right to charge for whatever repairs were necessary to put her in a seaworthy condition, and that the repairs put on her by the persons who purchased her were not to be taken as the standard to show what repairs were necessary for her, as they might choose to put her in mere temporary and cheap repair for their own purposes, but not sufficiently so as to render her seaworthy. As part of her necessary repairs, it was shown that she required new sails, and it appeared that the persons who purchased the vessel sent her to Bremen, and there purchased sails for her, which they did at a price 20 per cent less than they could do at

New Orleans, and counsel for plaintiff contended that he was entitled to charge this 20 per cent more than the sails could be bought for at New Orleans, as it was at that latter place the owners would have supplied her with sails, if they had paid the salvage and regained possession of the vessel; and that those charges, with some other minor ones, after deducting one-third for the difference between new and old materials, would amount to more than $8,000, or half the value of the vessel. It was also contended that even if the letter of abandonment could be rescinded, and that the amount of necessary repairs to be put on the vessel, with the costs of salvage, would in all human probability have been more than one-half the value of the vessel, in such case the owners had a right to abandon her, though it afterwards turned out that the repairs and salvage amounted to less than one-half her value.

The chief grounds of the defence were, that the vessel was not seaworthy when the policy was effected, and that the captain had no right to abandon her under the circumstances of the case, and the grounding of the ship arose from want of proper caution on the part of the officers.

The court charged the jury the first ground of the defence was, that the vessel was unseaworthy when the risk began, and if so the policy was void, though the owners were ignorant of it. Whether the vessel was or was not in a condition to withstand the ordinary perils of the sea, was a question exclusively for the jury. The second ground of defence was, that she run ashore from want of due caution; not by design, but by inattention, and the want of using ordinary means to guard against dangers, and the jury were to say was there a want of prudence or care on the part of the officers of the ship. If the ship went aground from the owners or officers' fault, then they cannot throw the loss on the insurance company. It is said, on the part of defendant, that, when the letters were mailed, the vessel was then in safety in her port of destination, and that it was the duty of the captain, at all hazards, to have released the vessel and repaired her, and then call on the company to pay the expenses, and that it was not a case in which an abandonment could be made.

There may be some reasons for that argument; but we must say, for the purposes of this trial, that though the said vessel was in part seaworthy and could be repaired, and for an amount less than she would be worth, yet she could be abandoned, if, under the other circumstances of the case, she might be abandoned. The nature of the case does not alter the rule, and though she was abandoned as a stranded vessel, but was got off, she was still a stranded ship, and laboring under the consequence of stranding, and therefore there is no difficulty on that point.

The plaintiff's right to recover for a total loss, depends upon whether or not the expenses for repairs necessary to be put on the ship, in order to repair the effects of stranding, amounted to more than $8,000, being more than one-half of her value in the policy. If it did, you must find a verdict for the whole sum of $6,000, being the amount of the policy.

Verdict for the whole amount claimed. For plaintiff, T. R. Tillou and Mr. Cutting; for defendants, Messrs. Lord and H. Ketchum.

ACTION OF ASSUMPSIT—COPARTNERSHIP.

In the Superior Judicial Court of Massachusetts, (Boston,) C. D. Bacon and J. B. Prince *vs.* S. T. Ames, an action of assumpsit was brought, to recover the amount of two memoranda of $500, and merchandise amounting to $144, making in all $644. The plaintiffs offered in evidence one memorandum of $200, payable to J. B. Prince, and one for $300, payable to J. B. Prince & Co., and an account of goods sold in the name of J. B. Prince alone.

The defendant admitted these claims, but relied upon the following grounds of de-

fence:—That there was, in fact, no copartnership between the plaintiffs; or, if any, it was only a *dormant partnership*;—that Ames had a set-off against Prince, for goods sold and money lent, which was a legal set-off to part of the claims of the plaintiffs, under the provisions of the Revised Statutes, chap. 96, sec. 9.

Evidence was introduced tending to show that the plaintiffs had formed a partnership under the style of Prince & Co., and also considerable evidence to the contrary; and especially the declarations of both plaintiffs, that no legal partnership had been formed between them. It was also found that all the business of the plaintiffs had been transacted under the firm of "J. B. Prince," and not "J. B. Prince & Co."

Judge Wilde ruled that, notwithstanding all the evidence that there was no copartnership, yet the plaintiffs taking a memorandum payable to J. B. Prince & Co., was conclusive evidence that there was a copartnership in that peculiar transaction;—that if the defendant had had dealings with the plaintiffs individually, and the plaintiffs claimed to recover the amount of the $200 memorandum, and the $144 for goods sold, the presumption of law was, that these claims were not partnership, but individual claims;—that although Ames's claims against the plaintiffs were all against J. B. Prince alone, Ames might prove that the money loaned to Prince was on account of the firm, and therefore a proper set-off.

In the course of the trial, the counsel for the defendant, having proved the bankruptcy of Prince, under the act of the United States, contended that the action could not be sustained in the name of Prince & Bacon, but should have been brought by Prince's assignee, jointly with Bacon.

The Court ruled that the action could not be sustained, but gave leave to amend, provided the assignee of Prince would consent to become a party. The defendant, however, waived this objection, and the cause was withdrawn from the jury, the defendant consenting to give the plaintiffs judgment for $150.

ASSIGNMENT.

In the United States District Court, (Boston,) December, 1843, in bankruptcy, Judge Sprague presiding, Henry Windsor *vs.* William Whiting.

This was a summary proceeding in equity, instituted by the assignee of Nathaniel Blake, a bankrupt, to recover of the respondent a fund amounting to about $3,000, which had been collected by him under an assignment made to him by Blake, for the benefit of his creditors, December 10, 1838, according to the provisions of the statute of April 15, 1836.

Only five creditors had become parties to this assignment, and no dividend had been paid; when, on the 20th of January, 1843, Blake filed his petitions in bankruptcy, but afterwards a number of other creditors signed the instrument.

Upon these facts, it was contended for the respondent—

1. That the assignment was good at common law.

2. That if Whiting, as assignee, held any thing, he held for the trusts declared in the assignment.

3. That all creditors had a right to become parties to the assignment at any time before the final dividend.

4. That the assignee in bankruptcy had no rights beyond those of the bankrupt to defeat the assignment.

Judge Sprague held it clear that the assignment was not valid under the statute of 1836, which had been repealed before the instrument was made. The question, then, was—was it good at common law? Now it was clearly settled in this state, that in case of an assignment to trustees for creditors, any creditor not a party thereto might attach the surplus, and so defeat the distribution according to the trusts. Therefore, the

second and third propositions of the respondent fell to the ground. Then, as to the fourth proposition, the assignee in bankruptcy acted for the creditors, and for their benefit he had a right to follow property conveyed away by the bankrupt contrary to their legal rights. And further, he took all their rights in that regard by operation of law, and therefore those creditors who executed the assignment after the bankruptcy could not take any part of the fund thereby.

But how were those who executed the instrument before the decree of bankruptcy to be dealt with? It was contended that they should be paid in full, to the exclusion of all who subsequently became parties.

This assignment, intended to derive all its efficacy from the statute of 1836, it was attempted to sustain by the common law, in order to carry into effect the intention of the parties. Now, the statute of 1836 prohibited preferences. It was the intention of the parties that there should be no preferences, and that all creditors should have a right to come in at any time before the final dividend. To cut off the subsequent signers, and give the whole fund to the five who had previously signed, would be to defeat the intention of the parties, by the means which were to be invoked for the purpose of effectuating that intention.

Again, the bankrupt law prohibits preferences. Yet it was contended that it was to have such a construction and operation given to it as to create a preference for these five creditors, and exclude all others, as well those who signed subsequently as others. By this means the intention of the parties, and of the bankrupt law, were both to be defeated.

An assignee, under the insolvent law of 1838, if it had continued in operation, would have defeated this conveyance; and the assignee, under the bankrupt law, had as extensive rights as an assignee under that statute would have had.

LIABILITY OF RAILROAD COMPANIES.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, holden at Boston, Wingate *vs.* the Boston and Providence Railroad Company, brought an action to recover damages for injuries to his person and property, occasioned by the negligence of the defendants' servants.

The evidence tended to show that the plaintiff was in his wagon, upon the cross street, claimed alike by this city and the corporation, near the Boston depot, when the train arrived here; and that, contrary to the usual practice, the engine was not detached from the cars and sent down a divergent track, before reaching the depot, but came on with them, owing to the breaking of the string which was vainly expected to lift the bolt connecting the locomotive with the cars. This, in legal phrase, acted as a surprise upon the plaintiff, and resulted in the destruction of his wagon, and the severe bruising of his person. A physician, who called to ascertain the extent of the plaintiff's bodily injuries, testified that he was not permitted to examine the plaintiff's person, but that, from what he could ascertain without such inspection, he should not consider the injuries as of a permanent character. Other witnesses thought the injuries more severe than the medical gentleman.

Judge Wilde ruled that his opinion was to be received, as the testimony of an "expert," and that the opinions of unprofessional witnesses were not entitled to any weight as evidence. In respect to the negligence alleged, he ruled that, as the defendants had left the street open to the public, the plaintiff had a right to be there, and it would be for the jury to decide whether, upon the evidence, the defendants' or the plaintiff had been wanting in due care and diligence.

The jury returned a verdict of $450 for the plaintiff.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE, NAVIGATION, REVENUE, ETC., OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE following tables, mainly from a recent report of the secretary of the treasury, exhibit a pretty full and comprehensive view of our foreign and domestic exports, and imports of foreign merchandise; our trade with the different countries of the world with which we have commercial intercourse; our navigation, revenue, &c., &c. The importance of these tables, at the present, as well as for all future time, is perhaps a sufficient apology for devoting so much space to them, to the exclusion of a great variety of statistical matter, of less general interest. By a careful re-arrangement of these tables, we have pressed them into less than half the space they occupy in the documents from which they are derived:—

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

1.—*A Statement exhibiting the value of Foreign Merchandise imported into the United States annually, from* 1821 *to* 1842.

Years.	Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.	Years.	Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.
		Value in Dollars.				*Value in Dollars.*	
1821,	10,082,313	52,503,411	62,585,724	1832,	14,249,453	86,779,813	101,029,266
1822,	7,298,708	75,942,833	83,241,541	1833,	32,447,950	75,670,361	108,118,311
1823,	9,048,288	68,530,979	77,579,267	1834,	68,393,180	58,128,152	126,521,332
1824,	12,563,773	67,985,234	80,549,007	1835,	77,940,493	71,955,249	149,895,742
1825,	10,947,510	85,392,565	96,340,075	1836,	92,056,481	97,923,554	189,980,035
1826,	12,567,769	72,406,708	84,974,477	1837,	69,250,031	71,739,186	140,989,217
1827,	11,855,104	67,628,964	79,484,068	1838,	60,860,005	52,857,399	113,717,404
1828,	12,379,176	76,130,648	88,509,824	1839,	76,401,792	85,690,340	162,092,132
1829,	11,805,501	62,687,026	74,492,527	1840,	57,196,204	49,945,315	107,141,519
1830,	12,746,245	58,130,675	70,876,920	1841,	66,019,731	61,926,446	127,946,177
1831,	13,456,625	89,734,499	103,191,124	1842,	30,627,486	69,534,601	100,162,087

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE RE-EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

2.—*A Statement exhibiting the value of Foreign Merchandise re-exported from the United States annually, from* 1821 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

Years.	Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.	Years.	Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.
		Value in Dollars.				*Value in Dollars.*	
1821,	10,764,757	10,537,731	21,302,488	1832,	5,590,616	18,448,857	24,039,473
1822,	11,184,896	11,101,306	22,286,202	1833,	7,410,766	12,411,969	19,822,735
1823,	7,696,749	19,846,873	27,543,622	1834,	12,433,291	10,879,520	23,312,811
1824,	8,115,082	17,222,075	25,337,157	1835,	12,760,840	7,743,655	20,504,495
1825,	9,885,840	22,704,803	32,590,643	1836,	12,513,493	9,232,867	21,746,360
1826,	5,135,108	19,404,504	24,539,612	1837,	12,448,919	9,406,043	21,854,962
1827,	7,785,150	15,617,986	23,403,136	1838,	7,986,411	4,466,384	12,452,795
1828,	8,427,678	13,167,339	21,595,017	1839,	12,486,827	5,007,698	17,494,525
1829,	5,231,077	11,427,401	16,658,478	1840,	12,384,503	5,805,809	18,190,312
1830,	2,320,317	12,067,162	14,387,479	1841,	11,240,900	4,228,181	15,469,081
1831,	7,599,043	12,434,483	20,033,526	1842,	6,837,084	4,884,454	11,721,538

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE CONSUMED, OR ON HAND, IN THE UNITED STATES.

3.—*A Statement exhibiting the value of Foreign Merchandise consumed, or on hand, in the United States, annually, from* 1821 *to* 1842.

Years.	Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.	Years.	Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.
		Value in Dollars.				*Value in Dollars.*	
1821,	(1)	.....	41,283,236	1832,	8,658,837	68,330,956	76,989,793
1822,	(2)	.....	60,955,339	1833,	25,037,184	63,258,392	88,295,576
1823,	1,351,539	48,684,106	50,035,645	1834,	55,959,889	47,248,632	103,208,531
1824,	4,448,691	50,763,159	55,211,850	1835,	65,179,653	64,211,594	129,391,247
1825,	1,061,670	62,687,762	63,749,432	1836,	79,542,988	88,690,687	168,233,675
1826,	7,432,661	53,002,204	60,434,865	1837,	56,801,112	62,333,143	119,134,255
1827,	4,069,954	52,010,978	56,080,932	1838,	52,873,594	48,391,015	101,264,609
1828,	3,951,498	62,963,309	66,914,807	1839,	63,914,965	80,682,642	144,597,607
1829,	6,574,424	51,249,625	57,824,049	1840,	44,811,701	44,139,506	88,951,207
1830,	10,425,928	46,063,513	56,489,441	1841,	54,778,831	57,698,265	112,477,096
1831,	5,857,582	77,300,016	83,157,598	1842,	23,790,402	64,650,147	88,440,549

Foreign and Domestic Exports.

A Statement exhibiting the value of the exports of domestic produce and manufacture, and of Foreign Merchandise re-exported, annually, from 1821 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

Years ending Sept. 30.	Domestic produce, &c.	Foreign Merchandise Re-exported. Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.	Total value of exports.
1821,.....	$43,671,894	$10,764,757	$10,537,731	$21,302,488	$64,974,382
1822,.....	49,874,079	11,184,896	11,101,306	22,286,202	72,160,281
1823,.....	47,155,408	7,696,749	19,846,873	27,543,622	74,699,030
1824,.....	53,649,500	8,115,082	17,222,075	25,337,157	75,986,657
1825,.....	66,944,745	9,885,840	22,704,803	32,590,643	99,535,388
1826,.....	53,055,710	5,135,108	19,404,504	24,539,612	77,595,322
1827,.....	58,921,691	7,785,150	15,617,986	23,403,136	82,324,827
1828,.....	50,669,669	8,427,678	13,167,339	21,595,017	72,264,686
1829,.....	55,700,193	5,231,077	11,427,401	16,658,478	72,358,671
1830,.....	59,462,029	2,320,317	12,067,162	14,387,479	73,849,508
1831,.....	61,277,057	7,599,043	12,434,483	20,033,526	81,310,583
1832,.....	63,137,470	5,590,616	18,448,857	24,039,473	87,176,943
1833,.....	70,317,698	7,410,766	12,411,969	19,822,735	90,140,433
1834,.....	81,024,162	12,433,291	10,879,520	23,312,811	104,336,973
1835,.....	101,189,082	12,760,840	7,743,655	20,504,495	121,693,577
1836,.....	106,916,680	12,513,493	9,232,867	21,746,360	128,663,040
1837,.....	95,564,414	12,448,919	9,406,043	21,854,962	117,419,376
1838,.....	96,033,821	7,986,411	4,466,384	12,452,795	108,486,616
1839,.....	103,533,891	12,486,827	5,007,698	17,494,525	121,028,416
1840,.....	113,895,634	12,384,503	5,805,809	18,190,312	132,085,946
1841,.....	106,382,722	11,240,900	4,228,181	15,469,081	121,851,803
1842,.....	92,969,996	6,837,084	4,884,454	11,721,538	104,691,534

Imports and Duties.

A Statement exhibiting the value of Merchandise imported from 1821 *to* 1842, *and also the amount of duties which accrued annually upon such merchandise, during the said period.*

Period. Year ending Sept. 30,	Free of duty.	Paying duty.	Total.	Gross duties on Merchandise.
1821,.....	$10,082,313	$52,503,411	$62,585,724	$18,475,703 57
1822,.....	7,298,708	75,942,833	83,241,451	24,066,066 43
1823,.....	9,048,288	68,530,979	77,579,267	22,402,024 29
1824,.....	12,563,733	67,985,234	80,549,007	25,486,817 86
1825,.....	10,947,510	85,392,565	96,340,075	31,653,871 50
1826,.....	12,567,769	72,406,708	84,974,477	26,083,861 97
1827,.....	11,855,104	67,628,964	79,484,968	27,948,956 57
1828,.....	12,379,176	76,130,648	88,509,824	29,951,251 90
1829,.....	11,805,501	62,687,026	74,492,527	27,688,701 11
1830,.....	12,746,245	58,130,675	70,876,920	28,389,505 05
1831,.....	13,456,625	89,734,499	103,191,124	36,596,118 19
1832,.....	14,249,453	86,779,813	101,029,266	29,341,175 65
1833,.....	32,447,950	75,670,361	108,118,311	24,177,578 52
1834,.....	68,393,180	58,128,152	126,521,332	18,960,705 96
1835,.....	77,940,493	71,955,249	149,895,742	25,890,726 66
1836,.....	92,056,481	97,923,554	189,980,035	30,818,327 67
1837,.....	69,250,031	71,739,186	140,989,217	18,134,131 01
1838,.....	60,860,005	52,857,399	113,717,404	19,702,825 45
1839,.....	76,401,792	85,690,340	162,092,132	25,554,533 96
1840,.....	57,196,204	49,945,315	107,141,519	15,104,790 63
1841,.....	66,019,731	61,926,446	127,946,177	19,919,492 17
1842,.....	30,627,486	69,534,601	100,162,087	16,622,746 84

Note.—The spaces show the changes in the tariffs.

Value of Imports and Exports.

A Statement exhibiting the value of Imports and Exports annually, from 1821 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

Years ending 30th of Sept.	Value of Exports. Dom. produce, &c.	Value of Exports. For. merchandise.	Value of Exports. Total.	Value of Imports.
1821,.....	$43,671,894	$21,302,488	$64,974,382	$62,585,724
1822,.....	49,874,079	22,286,202	72,160,281	83,241,541
1823,.....	47,155,408	27,543,622	74,699,030	77,579,267
1824,.....	50,649,500	25,337,157	75,986,657	80,549,007
1825,.....	66,944,745	32,590,643	99,535,388	96,340,075
1826,.....	53,055,710	24,539,612	77,595,322	84,974,477
1827,.....	58,921,691	23,403,136	82,324,827	79,484,068
1828,.....	50,669,669	21,595,017	72,264,686	88,509,824
1829,.....	55,700,193	16,658,478	72,358,671	74,492,527
1830,.....	59,462,029	14,387,479	73,849,508	70,876,920
1831,.....	61,277,057	20,033,526	81,310,583	103,191,124
1832,.....	63,137,470	24,039,473	87,176,943	101,029,266
1833,.....	70,317,698	19,822,735	90,140,433	108,118,311
1834,.....	81,024,162	23,312,811	104,336,973	126,521,332
1835,.....	101,189,082	20,504,495	121,693,577	149,895,742
1836,.....	106,916,680	21,746,360	128,663,040	189,980,035
1837,.....	95,564,414	21,854,962	117,419,376	140,989,217
1838,.....	96,033,821	12,452,795	108,486,616	113,717,404
1839,.....	103,533,891	17,494,525	121,028,416	162,092,132
1840,.....	113,895,634	18,190,312	132,085,946	107,141,519
1841,.....	106,382,722	15,469,081	121,851,803	127,946,177
1842,.....	92,969,996	11,721,538	104,691,534	100,162,087

American and Foreign Tonnage cleared and entered the United States.

A Statement exhibiting the amount of Tonnage employed in the Foreign Trade, annually, from 1821 *to* 1842.

Years ending 30th of Sept.	Tonnage. American Vessels. Cleared.	American Vessels. Entered.	Foreign Vessels. Cleared.	Foreign Vessels. Entered.
		Tons.		
1821,.....	804,947	765,098	83,073	81,596
1822,.....	813,748	787,961	97,490	100,541
1823,.....	810,761	775,271	119,740	119,468
1824,.....	919,278	850,033	102,552	102,367
1825,.....	960,366	880,754	95,080	92,927
1826,.....	953,012	942,206	99,417	105,654
1827,.....	980,542	918,361	131,250	137,589
1828,.....	897,404	868,381	151,030	150,223
1829,.....	944,799	872,949	133,006	130,743
1830,.....	971,760	967,227	133,436	131,900
1831,.....	972,504	922,952	271,994	281,948
1832,.....	974,865	949,622	387,505	393,038
1833,.....	1,142,160	1,111,441	497,039	496,705
1834,.....	1,134,020	1,074,670	577,700	568,052
1835,.....	1,400,517	1,352,653	630,824	641,310
1836,.....	1,315,523	1,255,384	674,721	680,213
1837,.....	1,266,622	1,299,720	756,292	765,703
1838,.....	1,408,761	1,302,974	604,166	592,110
1839,.....	1,477,928	1,491,279	611,839	624,814
1840,.....	1,647,009	1,576,946	706,486	712,363
1841,.....	1,634,156	1,631,909	736,849	736,444
1842,.....	1,536,451	1,510,111	740,497	732,775

Duties, Drawbacks, and Revenue of the United States.

Statement exhibiting the amount of Duties on Merchandise, Tonnage, and Light Money, Passports, and Clearances; Drawback paid on Foreign Merchandise re-exported; Drawback on Domestic Refined Sugar and Domestic Distilled Spirits; Bounties on Pickled Fish exported; Allowances to Vessels employed in the Bank and Cod Fisheries; Expenses of Collection, and the Nett Revenue which accrued annually, from 1821 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

Years.	Duties on			Gross revenue.	Payments for						Nett revenue.
					Drawback paid on			Bounties.	Allowances to fishing vessels.	Expenses of collection.	
	Merchandise.	Tonnage and light money.	Passports.		Foreign merchandise.	Domestic refined sugar.	Domestic distilled spirits.				
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
1821,....	18,844,364 31	98,177 60	9,858 00	18,952,399 91	2,909,212 48	5,362 80	36,970 61	11,107 80	181,160 71	693,167 13	15,155,418 38
1822,....	24,078,919 02	127,892 68	10,144 00	24,216,955 70	2,126,140 13	1,981 68	3,189 25	10,158 30	149,897 83	706,471 98	21,219,116 53
1823,....	22,316,752 25	89,263 10	12,573 00	22,418,588 35	3,774,065 69	2,281 68	3,515 60	10,938 50	176,706 08	733,242 38	17,717,836 42
1824,....	25,494,618 55	126,540 94	10,996 00	25,632,155 49	4,337,830 35	2,308 72	3,528 60	10,162 80	208,924 08	754,611 31	20,215,059 63
1825,....	31,673,608 07	138,847 83	12,638 00	31,825,093 90	5,372,859 11	1,612 68	1,952 32	10,560 60	198,724 97	851,479 62	25,387,904 60
1826,....	26,093,373 50	150,182 43	11,716 00	26,255,271 93	6,178,886 04	2,627 57	6,561 03	13,640 40	215,859 01	840,219 71	18,997,478 17
1827,....	27,943,989 31	145,701 76	13,124 00	28,102,815 07	4,625,253 45	5,834 36	11,168 28	8,879 20	206,185 55	867,438 08	22,378,045 15
1828,....	29,946,706 80	139,641 14	10,920 00	30,097,267 94	4,052,371 37	2,045 48	14,712 54	9,026 23	239,145 20	889,629 99	24,890,337 83
1829,....	27,603,078 58	133,861 27	11,060 00	27,747,999 85	4,160,586 70	45,092 56	.....	9,007 69	261,069 94	975,730 23	22,296,512 73
1830,....	28,382,846 35	130,436 06	11,356 00	28,524,638 41	4,319,400 27	84,230 48	1,035 92	9,073 10	197,642 28	1,029,682 83	22,833,573 53
1831,....	36,304,342 35	67,004 49	2,250 00	36,373,596 84	4,598.785 34	63,688 65	1,290 91	13,466 20	200,428 39	1,183,086 13	30,312,851 22
1832,....	28,270,578 09	49,561 40	.....	28,320,139 49	5,272,480 43	42,840 65	3,110 00	14,392 00	219,745 27	1,278.674 38	21,488,896 76
1833,....	21,512,753 36	71,729 43	.....	21,584,482 79	5,163,938 49	34,643 80	2,960 06	13,284 43	245,182 40	1,326,691 13	14,797,782 48
1834,....	18,124,916 82	70,988 76	.....	18,195,905 58	3,070,119 03	162,086 05	11,973 15	10,852 21	218,218 76	1,264,545 37	13,458,111 01
1835,....	25,490,753 18	81,212 87	.....	25,571,966 05	2,445,717 38	41,172 00	14,484 28	9,536 80	223,784 93	1,284,997 69	21,552,272 97
1836,....	30,624,619 48	57,048 78	.....	30,681,668 26	2,651,757 12	83,768 60	3,010 84	6,731 80	213,091 03	1,397,469 10	26,325,839 77
1837,....	17,554,365 02	52,762 10	.....	17,607,127 12	2,436,202 39	100,642 70	4,663 52	7,360 42	250,181 03	1,492,947 84	13,315,129 22
1838,....	18,677,804 13	73,785 57	.....	18,751,589 70	1,390,010 06	145,494 30	8,589 68	5,474 30	314,149 49	1,514,623 34	15,373,238 53
1839,....	24,436,408 97	85,007 56	.....	24,521,416 53	1,537,787 55	357,488 30	16,507 36	4,743 50	319,858 03	1,724,591 89	20,560,439 90
1840,....	13,839,921 04	44,536 47	.....	13,884,457 51	1,326,718 26	523,263 45	26,233 88	4,953 90	301,629 34	1,542,319 24	10,159,339 44
1841,....	19,166,465 66	54,553 25	.....	19,221,018 91	1,186,348 30	633,536 34	40,684 42	4,760 40	355,140 01	1,483,960 08	15,516,589 36
1842,....	15,865,913 71	28,100 59	.....	15,894,014 30	1,293,641 43	89,447 39	31,066 89	5,629 30	235,613 07	1,458,442 58	12,780,173 64

VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

1.—*Value of Cottons, Woollens, Silks, Linens, and Manufactures of Flax, Hemp, Iron, and Steel, imported into the United States annually, from* 1821 to 1842.

Years.	Cottons.	Woollens.	Silks.	Linens and manufactures of flax.	Manufactures of hemp.	Manufactures of iron and steel.
1821,	$7,589,711	$7,437,737	$4,486,924	$2,564,159	$1,120,450	$1,868,529
1822,	10,246,907	12,185,904	6,840,928	4,132,747	1,857,328	3,155,575
1823,	8,554,877	8,268,038	6,718,444	3,803,007	1,497,006	2,967,121
1824,	8,895,757	8,386,597	7,204,588	3,873,616	1,780,199	2,831,702
1825,	12,509,516	11,392,264	10,299,743	3,887,787	2,134,384	3,706,416
1826,	8,348,034	8,431,974	8,327,909	2,987,026	2,062,728	3,186,485
1827,	9,316,153	8,742,701	6,712,015	2,656,786	1,883,466	3,973,587
1828,	10,996,270	8,679,505	7,686,640	3,239,539	2,087,318	4,180,915
1829,	8,362,017	6,881,489	7,192,698	2,842,431	1,468,485	3,430,908
1830,	7,862,326	5,766,396	5,932,243	3,011,280	1,333,478	3,655,848
1831,	16,090,224	12,627,229	11,117,946	3,790,111	1,477,149	4,827,833
1832,	10,399,653	9,992,424	9,248,907	4,073,164	1,640,618	5,396,245
1833,	7,660,449	13,262,509	9,498,366	3,132,557	2,036,035	4,135,437
1834,	10,145,181	11,879,328	10,998,964	5,485,389	1,679,995	4,746,621
1835,	15,367,585	17,834,494	16,677,547	6,472,021	2,555,847	5,351,616
1836,	17,876,087	21,080,003	22,980,212	9,307,493	3,365,897	7,880,869
1837,	11,150,841	8,500,292	14,352,823	5,544,761	1,951,626	6,526,693
1838,	6,599,330	11,512,920	9,812,338	3,972,098	1,591,757	3,613,286
1839,	14,908,181	18,575,945	21,678,086	7,703,065	2,096,716	6,507,510
1840,	6,504,484	9,071,184	9,761,223	4,614,466	1,588,155	3,184,900
1841,	11,757,036	11,001,939	15,511,009	6,846,807	2,566,381	4,255,960
1842,	9,578,515	8,375,725	9,448,372	3,659,184	1,273,534	3,572,081

2.—*Value of Earthen, Stone, and Chinaware, Specie and Bullion, Wines, Spirits, Molasses, and Teas, imported into the United States annually, from* 1821 *to* 1842.

Years.	Earthen, stone, and China-ware.	Specie and bullion.	Wines.	Spirits.	Molasses.	Teas.
1821,	$763,883	$8,064,890	$1,873,464	$1,804,798	$1,719,227	$1,322,636
1822,	1,164,609	3,369,846	1,864,627	2,450,961	2,393,355	1,860,777
1823,	1,143,415	5,097,896	1,291,542	1,791,419	2,634,222	2,361,245
1824,	888,869	6,473,095	1,050,898	2,142,620	2,413,643	2,786,252
1825,	1,086,890	6,150,765	1,826,263	3,135,210	2,547,715	3,728,935
1826,	1,337,589	6,880,966	1,781,188	1,587,712	2,838,728	3,752,281
1827,	1,181,047	8,151,130	1,621,035	1,651,436	2,818,982	1,714,882
1828,	1,554,010	7,489,741	1,507,533	2,331,656	2,788,471	2,451,197
1829,	1,337,744	7,403,612	1,569,562	1,447,914	1,484,104	2,060,457
1830,	1,259,060	8,155,964	1,535,102	658,990	995,776	2,425,018
1831,	1,624,604	7,305,945	1,673,058	1,037,737	2,432,488	1,418,037
1832,	2,024,020	5,907,504	2,387,479	1,365,018	2,521,281	2,788,353
1833,	1,818,187	7,070,368	2,698,497	1,537,226	2,867,986	5,484,603
1834,	1,591,413	17,911,632	2,944,388	1,319,245	2,989,020	6,217,949
1835,	1,697,682	13,131,447	3,750,608	1,632,681	3,074,172	4,522,806
1836,	2,709,187	13,400,881	4,332,034	1,917,381	4,077,312	5,342,811
1837,	1,823,400	10,516,414	4,105,741	1,470,802	3,444,701	5,903,054
1838,	1,385,536	17,747,116	2,318,282	1,476,918	3,865,285	3,497,156
1839,	2,483,258	5,595,176	3,441,697	2,222,426	4,364,234	2,428,419
1840,	2,010,231	8,882,813	2,209,176	1,592,564	2,910,791	5,427,010
1841,	1,536,450	4,988,633	2,091,411	1,743,237	2,628,519	3,466,245
1842,	1,557,961	4,087,016	1,271,019	886,866	1,942,575	4,527,108

3.—*Value of Coffee, Sugar, Salt, Spices, Lead, Hemp, and Cordage, imported into the United States annually, from* 1821 *to* 1842.

Years.	Coffee.	Sugar.	Salt.	Spices.	Lead.	Hemp and cordage.
1821,....	$4,489,970	$3,553,582	$609,021	$310,281	$284,701	$618,356
1822,....	5,552,649	5,034,429	626,932	505,340	266,441	1,202,085
1823,....	7,098,119	3,258,689	740,866	580,956	155,175	796,731
1824,....	5,437,029	5,165,800	613,486	655,149	128,570	590,035

VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF MERCHANDISE, etc.—Continued.

Value of Coffee, Sugar, Salt, Spices, Lead, Hemp, and Cordage, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Coffee.	Sugar.	Salt.	Spices.	Lead.	Hemp and cordage.
1825,....	$5,250,828	$4,232,530	$589,125	$626,039	$301,408	$484,826
1826,....	4,159,558	5,311,631	677,058	594,568	265,409	636,356
1827,....	4,464,391	4,577,361	535,201	322,730	303,615	698,355
1828,....	5,192,338	3,546,736	443,469	432,504	305,662	1,191,441
1829,....	4,588,585	3,622,406	714,618	461,539	52,146	762,239
1830,....	4,227,021	4,630,342	671,979	457,723	20,395	279,743
1831,....	6,317,666	4,910,877	535,138	279,095	52,410	335,572
1832,....	9,099,464	2,933,688	634,910	306,013	124,632	987,253
1833,....	10,567,299	4,752,343	996,418	919,493	60,745	624,054
1834,....	8,762,657	5,537,829	839,315	493,932	183,762	669,307
1835,....	10,715,466	6,806,174	655,097	712,638	54,112	616,341
1836,....	9,653,053	12,514,404	724,527	1,018,038	37,521	904,103
1837,....	8,657,760	7,282,668	862,617	847,607	17,874	530,080
1838,....	7,640,217	7,586,360	1,028,418	438,258	8,766	597,565
1839,....	9,744,103	9,919,502	887,092	839,236	20,756	716,999
1840,....	8,546,222	5,580,950	1,015,426	558,939	19,455	786,115
1841,....	10,444,882	8,798,037	821,495	498,879	3,702	742,970
1842,....	8,938,638	6,370,775	841,572	568,636	523,428	353,888

MANUFACTURES OF COTTON IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

A Statement exhibiting the value of Manufactures of Cotton imported from 1821 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

Years.	Dyed and colored.	White.	Hosiery, gloves, mits, and bind'gs.	Twist, yarn, and thread.	Nankeens from China.	Articles not specified.	Total.
1821,	$4,366,407	$2,511,405	$198,783	$151,138	$361,978	.....	$7,589,711
1822,	5,856,763	2,951,627	433,309	181,843	823,365	.....	10,246,907
1823,	4,899,499	2,636,813	314,606	103,259	600,700	.....	8,554,877
1824,	5,776,210	2,354,540	387,514	140,069	188,633	$48,791	8,895,757
1825,	7,709,830	3,326,208	545,915	201,549	350,243	375,771	12,509,516
1826,	5,056,725	2,260,024	404,870	175,143	304,980	146,292	8,348,034
1827,	5,316,546	2,584,994	439,773	263,772	256,221	454,847	9,316,153
1828,	6,133,844	2,451,316	640,360	344,040	388,231	1,038,479	10,996,270
1829,	4,404,078	2,242,805	586,997	173,120	542,179	412,838	8,362,017
1830,	4,356,675	2,487,804	387,454	172,785	228,233	229,375	7,862,326
1831,	10,046,500	4,285,175	887,957	393,414	114,076	363,102	16,090,224
1832,	6,355,475	2,258,672	1,035,513	316,122	120,629	313,242	10,399,653
1833,	5,181,647	1,181,512	623,369	343,059	37,001	293,861	7,660,449
1834,	6,668,823	1,766,482	749,356	379,703	47,337	533,390	10,145,181
1835,	10,610,722	2,738,493	906,369	544,473	9,021	558,507	15,367,585
1836,	12,192,980	2,766,787	1,358,608	555,290	28,348	974,074	17,876,087
1837,	7,087,270	1,611,398	1,267,267	404,603	35,990	744,313	11,150,841
1838,	4,217,551	980,142	767,856	222,114	27,049	384,618	6,599,330
1839,	9,216,000	2,154,931	1,879,783	779,004	3,772	874,591	14,908,181
1840,	3,893,694	917,101	792,078	387,095	1,102	513,414	6,504,484
1841,	7,434,727	1,573,505	980,639	863,130	217	904,818	11,757,036
1842,	6,168,544	1,285,894	1,027,621	457,917	53	638,486	9,578,515

MANUFACTURES OF WOOL IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

1.—*A Statement exhibiting the value of Cloths, Merino Shawls, &c., Blankets, Hosiery, Gloves, Mits, &c., Worsted Stuffs, and Woollen and Worsted Yarn, imported into the United States annually, from* 1821 *to* 1842.

Years.	Cloths and merino shawls, &c.	Blankets.	Hosiery, gloves, mits, &c.	Worsted stuffs.	Woollen and worsted yarn.
1821,.....	$5,038,255	$434,256	$198,783	$1,766,443	.....
1822,.....	8,491,935	991,147	433,309	2,269,513	.....
1823,.....	5,844,068	604,896	314,605	1,504,469	.....
1824,.....	5,202,009	526,023	317,778	2,158,680	.....
1825,.....	5,264,562	891,197	369,747	2,277,486	.....
1826,.....	4,546,714	527,784	189,993	1,143,166	.....

MANUFACTURES OF WOOL IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

A Statement exhibiting the value of Cloths, Merino Shawls, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Cloths and merino shawls, &c.	Blankets.	Hosiery, gloves, mits, &c.	Worsted stuffs.	Woollen and worsted yarn.
1827,.....	$4,285,413	$703,477	$376,927	$1,382,875	.....
1828,.....	4,315,714	624,239	365,339	1,446,146	.....
1829,.....	3,335,994	455,467	230,986	1,600,622	.....
1830,.....	2,854,339	594,044	133,453	1,397,545	.....
1831,.....	6,121,442	1,180,478	325,856	3,392,037	.....
1832,.....	5,101,841	602,796	260,563	2,615,124	.....
1833,.....	6,133,443	1,165,260	463,348	4,281,309	$102,719
1834,.....	4,364,340	1,068,065	383,977	5,055,121	166,517
1835,.....	7,048,334	1,865,344	652,680	6,549,278	262,515
1836,.....	8,945,509	2,397,822	700,530	6,666,312	212,706
1837,.....	3,015,783	959,814	177,092	3,350,266	172,462
1838,.....	5,348,928	946,546	356,965	3,933,455	136,689
1839,.....	7,361,373	1,356,086	1,037,096	7,025,898	368,958
1840,.....	4,823,138	570,417	506,452	2,387,338	104,738
1841,.....	5,042,045	691,895	471,877	3,712,206	158,224
1842,.....	4,180,875	566,233	375,297	2,366,122	217,611

2.—*A Statement exhibiting the value of Carpeting, Flannels and Baizes, and all other Manufactures of Wool, with the total value of all Manufactures of Wool imported into the United States annually, from* 1821 *to* 1842.

Years.	Carpeting.	Flannels and baizes.	All other manufactures of wool.	Total.
1821,.....	.....	.....	.....	$7,437,737
1822,.....	.....	.....	.....	12,185,904
1823,.....	.....	.....	.....	8,268,038
1824,.....	$37,834	.....	$144,273	8,386,597
1825,.....	515,391	$1,065,609	1,008,272	11,392,264
1826,.....	545,148	586,823	892,346	8,431,974
1827,.....	511,186	587,250	895,573	8,742,701
1828,.....	581,946	667,722	678,399	8,679,505
1829,.....	323,254	393,208	551,958	6,881,489
1830,.....	201,649	266,060	319,306	5,766,396
1831,.....	421,099	695,666	490,651	12,627,229
1832,.....	557,775	503,193	351,132	9,992,424
1833,.....	319,592	286,299	510,539	13,262,509
1834,.....	396,868	240,663	203,787	11,879,328
1835,.....	603,084	399,785	453,404	17,834,424
1836,.....	964,655	475,712	713,757	21,080,003
1837,.....	623,101	111,249	90,525	8,500,292
1838,.....	315,353	159,979	315,005	11,512,920
1839,.....	612,607	291,373	522,554	18,575,945
1840,.....	338,501	118,715	221,885	9,071,184
1841,.....	345,488	184,911	395,293	11,001,939
1842,.....	242,309	90,280	330,989	8,375,725

MANUFACTURES OF FLAX IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

A Statement exhibiting the value of Linens, and other manufactures of Flax, imported into the United States annually, from 1821 *to* 1842.

Years.	Linens.	Other man'f. of.	Tot. val.	Years.	Linens.	Other man'f. of.	Tot. val.
1821,	$2,564,159	.....	$2,564,159	1832,	$3,428,559	$644,605	$4,073,164
1822,	4,132,747	.....	4,132,747	1833,	2,611,840	520,717	3,132,557
1823,	3,803,007	.....	3,803,007	1834,	5,088,480	396,909	5,485,389
1824,	3,873,616	.....	3,873,616	1835,	6,056,141	415,880	6,472,021
1825,	3,675,689	$212,098	3,887,787	1836,	8,803,956	503,537	9,307,493
1826,	2,757,080	229,946	2,987,026	1837,	5,077,379	467,382	5,544,761
1827,	2,366,115	230,671	2,656,786	1838,	3,583,340	388,758	3,972,098
1828,	2,514,688	724,851	3,239,539	1839,	6,939,986	763,079	7,703,065
1829,	2,581,901	260,530	2,842,431	1840,	4,292,782	321,684	4,614,466
1830,	2,527,778	483,502	3,011,280	1841,	6,320,419	526,388	6,846,807
1831,	3,163,956	626,155	3,790,111	1842,	3,153,805	505,379	3,659,184

MANUFACTURES OF HEMP IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

A Statement exhibiting the value of Manufactures of Hemp; embracing Sail Duck, Sheeting, brown and white, Ticklenburgs, Osnaburgs, and Burlaps, Cotton Bagging, &c., annually, from 1821 *to* 1842.

Years.	Sail duck.	Sheeting, brown and white.	Ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps.	Cot. bagging.	Other manufactures of.	Total value.
1821,	$894,276	$226,174	.....	.....	.....	$1,120,450
1822,	1,524,486	332,842	.....	.....	.....	1,857,328
1823,	1,024,180	572,826	.....	.....	.....	1,497,006
1824,	990,017	673,735	$37,338	$18,491	$60,618	1,780,199
1825,	677,151	405,739	381,063	637,023	33,408	2,134,384
1826,	856,474	470,705	411,667	274,973	48,909	2,062,728
1827,	766,310	336,124	353,826	366,913	60,293	1,883,466
1828,	678,483	352,483	604,674	408,626	43,052	2,087,318
1829,	362,333	247,865	531,709	274,073	52,505	1,468,485
1830,	317,347	250,237	563,665	69,126	133,103	1,333,478
1831,	470,030	351,499	514,645	18,966	122,009	1,477,149
1832,	766,191	326,027	366,320	87,966	84,114	1,640,618
1833,	660,323	327,518	648,891	158,681	40,622	2,036,035
1834,	720,780	400,000	300,000	237,260	21,955	1,679,995
1835,	828,826	426,942	337,011	924,036	39,032	2,555,847
1836,	662,652	555,141	392,194	1,701,451	54,459	3,365,897
1837,	540,421	541,771	384,716	429,251	55,467	1,951,626
1838,	683,070	325,345	362,725	173,325	47,292	1,591,757
1839,	760,199	535,789	483,269	220,023	97,436	2,096,716
1840,	615,723	261,173	329,054	310,211	71,994	1,588,155
1841,	904,493	325,167	539,772	723,678	73,271	2,566,381
1842,	516,880	110,782	187,006	421,624	37,042	1,273,534

NOTE.—Sail duck and sheeting not stated separately until 1824.

MANUFACTURES OF IRON AND STEEL IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

A Statement of the value of Manufactures of Iron and Steel, paying specific and ad valorem duties, imported into the United States annually, from 1821 *to* 1842.

Years.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.	Years.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.
1821,	$1,630,129	$238,400	$1,868,529	1832,	$4,697,512	$608,733	$5,306,245
1822,	2,767,757	387,818	3,155,575	1833,	3,361,582	773,855	4,135,437
1823,	2,568,842	398,279	2,967,121	1834,	4,090,621	656,000	4,746,621
1824,	2,505,291	326,411	2,831,702	1835,	4,827,461	524,155	5,351,616
1825,	3,312,758	393,658	3,706,416	1836,	7,001,404	879,465	7,880,869
1826,	2,831,333	355,152	3,186,485	1837,	5,488,311	1,038,382	6,526,693
1827,	3,525,433	448,154	3,973,587	1838,	3,069,507	543,779	3,613,286
1828,	3,559,982	620,933	4,180,915	1839,	5,585,063	922,447	6,507,510
1829,	3,100,630	330,278	3,430,908	1840,	2,575,229	609,671	3,184,900
1830,	3,372,146	283,702	3,655,848	1841,	3,428,140	827,820	4,255,960
1831,	4,358,921	468,912	4,827,833	1842,	2,919,498	652,583	3,572,081

UNMANUFACTURED IRON AND STEEL IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

A Statement of Bar, Pig, Old and Scrap Iron, and Steel, imported into the United States annually, from 1821 *to* 1842.

Years.	Bar Iron. Manufactured by rolling.	Bar Iron. Manufactured otherwise.	Pig iron.	Old and scrap iron.	Steel.	Total value.
1821,	$1,213,041	.....	.....	.....	$131,291	$1,344,332
1822,	1,864,868	.....	.....	.....	189,613	2,054,481
1823,	1,891,635	.....	.....	.....	224,595	2,116,230
1824,	962,897	$483,686	$3,444	.....	236,405	1,686,432
1825,	224,497	1,562,146	36,513	.....	291,515	2,114,671
1826,	223,259	1,590,350	67,004	.....	384,235	2,264,848
1827,	347,792	1,323,749	46,881	.....	310,197	2,028,619
1828,	441,000	2,141,178	93,025	.....	430,425	3,105,628
1829,	119,326	1,884,049	28,811	.....	289,831	2,322,017

UNMANUFACTURED IRON AND STEEL IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

A Statement of Bar, Pig, Old and Scrap Iron, and Steel, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Bar Iron. Manufactured by rolling.	Bar Iron. Manufactured otherwise.	Pig iron.	Old and scrap iron.	Steel.	Total value.
1830,	$226,336	$1,730,375	$25,644	.....	$291,257	$2,273,612
1831,	544,664	1,260,166	160,681	.....	399,635	2,365,146
1832,	701,549	1,929,493	222,303	.....	645,510	3,498,855
1833,	1,002,750	1,837,473	217,668	$24,035	523,116	3,605,042
1834,	1,187,236	1,742,883	270,325	33,243	554,150	3,787,837
1835,	1,050,152	1,641,359	289,779	11,609	576,988	3,569,887
1836,	2,131,828	1,891,214	272,978	28,224	686,141	5,010,385
1837,	2,573,367	2,017,346	422,929	18,391	804,817	5,836,850
1838,	1,825,121	1,166,196	319,099	7,567	487,334	3,805,317
1839,	3,181,180	2,054,094	285,300	10,161	771,804	6,302,539
1840,	1,707,649	1,689,831	114,562	15,749	528,716	4,056,507
1841,	2,172,278	1,614,619	223,228	10,537	609,201	4,629,863
1842,	2,053,453	1,041,410	295,284	8,207	597,317	3,995,671

HEMP AND CORDAGE IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

A Statement exhibiting the value of Hemp and Cordage imported into the United States from 1821 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

Years.	Hemp.	Tarred cordage.	Untarred cordage.	Total value.
1821,.....	$510,489	$107,867	.....	$618,356
1822,.....	1,054,764	147,321	.....	1,202,085
1823,.....	674,454	122,277	.....	796,731
1824,.....	485,075	104,960	.....	590,035
1825,.....	431,787	42,646	$10,393	484,826
1826,.....	551,757	77,186	7,413	636,356
1827,.....	635,854	56,162	6,339	698,355
1828,.....	1,075,243	109,454	6,744	1,191,441
1829,.....	655,935	97,436	8,868	762,239
1830,.....	200,338	71,291	8,114	279,743
1831,.....	295,706	33,522	6,344	335,572
1832,.....	866,865	116,389	3,999	987,253
1833,.....	470,973	142,538	10,543	624,054
1834,.....	514,743	147,805	6,759	669,307
1835,.....	528,981	81,594	5,766	616,341
1836,.....	815,558	82,561	5,984	904,103
1837,.....	483,792	34,108	12,180	530,080
1838,.....	512,506	75,142	9,917	597,565
1839,.....	607,766	106,902	2,331	716,999
1840,.....	686,777	85,904	13,434	786,115
1841,.....	561,039	112,995	68,936	742,970
1842,.....	267,849	66,548	19,491	353,888

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

Statement of the value of Articles imported into the United States, designating the countries from which received, annually, from 1821 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

Years.	Great Britain and dependencies.	France and dependencies.	Spain and dependencies.	Netherlands and dependencies.	Sweden and dependencies.	Denmark and dependencies.
1821,	$29,277,938	$5,900,581	$9,653,728	$2,934,272	$1,369,869	$1,999,730
1822,	39,537,829	7,059,342	12,376,841	2,708,162	1,544,907	2,535,406
1823,	34,072,578	6,605,343	14,233,590	2,125,587	1,503,050	1,324,532
1824,	32,732,340	8,120,763	16,577,156	2,355,525	1,101,750	2,110,666
1825,	42,394,812	11,835,581	9,566,237	2,265,378	1,417,598	1,539,592
1826,	32,212,356	9,588,896	9,623,420	2,174,181	1,292,182	2,117,164
1827,	33,056,374	9,448,562	9,100,369	2,722,070	1,225,042	2,340,171
1828,	35,591,484	10,237,505	8,167,546	1,990,431	1,946,783	2,374,069
1829,	27,582,032	9,616,970	6,801,374	1,617,334	1,303,959	2,086,177
1830,	26,804,984	8,240,885	8,373,681	1,356,765	1,398,640	1,671,218
1831,	47,956,717	14,737,585	11,701,201	1,653,031	1,120,730	1,652,216
1832,	42,406,924	12,754,615	10,863,290	2,358,474	1,150,804	1,182,708

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM DIFFERENT COUNTRIES—Continued.

Statement of the value of Articles imported into the United States, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Great Britain and dependencies.	France and dependencies.	Spain and dependencies.	Netherlands and dependencies.	Sweden and dependencies.	Denmark and dependencies.
1833,	$43,085,865	$13,962,913	$13,431,207	$2,347,343	$1,200,899	$1,166,872
1834,	52,679,298	17,557,245	13,527,464	2,127,886	1,126,541	1,684,368
1835,	65,949,307	23,362,584	15,617,140	2,903,718	1,316,508	1,403,902
1836,	86,022,915	37,036,235	19,345,690	3,861,514	1,299,603	1,874,340
1837,	52,289,557	22,497,817	18,927,871	3,370,828	1,468,878	1,266,906
1838,	49,051,181	18,087,149	15,971,394	2,194,238	900,790	1,644,865
1839,	71,600,351	33,234,119	19,276,795	3,473,220	1,566,142	1,546,758
1840,	39,130,921	17,908,127	14,019,647	2,326,896	1,275,458	976,678
1841,	51,099,638	24,187,444	16,316,303	2,440,437	1,229,641	1,084,321
1842,	38,613,043	17,023,390	12,176,588	2,214,520	914,176	584,321

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

Statement of the value of Articles imported into the United States, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Portugal and dependencies.	China.	Hanse Towns.	Russia.	Italy.	Hayti.
1821,	$748,423	$3,111,951	$990,165	$1,852,199	$973,463	$2,246,257
1822,	881,290	5,242,536	1,578,757	3,307,328	1,562,033	2,341,817
1823,	533,635	6,511,425	1,981,026	2,258,777	1,369,440	2,352,733
1824,	601,722	5,618,502	2,527,830	2,209,663	1,029,439	2,247,235
1825,	733,443	7,533,115	2,739,526	2,067,110	1,454,022	2,065,329
1826,	765,203	7,422,186	2,816,545	2,617,169	1,120,749	1,511,836
1827,	659,001	3,617,183	1,638,558	2,066,077	1,013,126	1,781,309
1828,	433,555	5,339,108	2,611,392	2,788,362	1,607,417	2,163,585
1829,	687,869	4,680,847	2,274,275	2,218,995	1,409,588	1,799,809
1830,	471,643	3,878,141	1,873,278	1,621,899	940,254	1,597,140
1831,	397,550	3,083,205	3,493,301	1,608,328	1,704,264	1,580,578
1832,	485,264	5,344,907	2,865,096	3,251,852	1,619,795	2,053,386
1833,	555,137	7,541,570	2,227,726	2,772,550	999,134	1,740,058
1834,	699,122	7,892,327	3,355,856	2,595,840	1,422,063	2,113,717
1835,	1,125,713	5,987,187	3,841,943	2,395,245	1,457,977	2,347,556
1836,	672,670	7,324,816	4,994,820	2,778,554	1,970,246	1,828,019
1837,	928,291	8,965,387	5,642,221	2,816,116	1,827,181	1,440,856
1838,	725,058	4,764,356	2,847,358	1,898,396	944,238	1,275,762
1839,	1,182,323	3,678,509	4,849,150	2,393,894	1,182,297	1,377,989
1840,	599,894	6,640,829	2,521,493	2,572,427	1,157,200	1,252,824
1841,	574,841	3,985,388	2,449,964	2,817,448	1,151,236	1,809,684
1842,	374,684	4,934,645	2,274,019	1,350,106	987,528	1,266,997

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

Statement of the value of Articles imported into the United States, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Mexico.	Venezuela, New Grenada, and Ecuador.	Central America.	Brazil.	Argentine and Cisplatine republics.	Chili.	Texas.
1821,	.....	.....	.....	$605,126	.....	.....	.....
1822,	.....	.....	.....	1,486,567	.....	.....	.....
1823,	.....	.....	.....	1,214,810	.....	.....	.....
1824,	.....	.....	.....	2,074,119	.....	.....	.....
1825,	$4,044,647	$1,837,050	$56,789	2,166,707	$749,771	$229,509	.....
1826,	3,916,198	2,079,724	204,270	2,156,678	522,769	629,949	.....
1827,	5,231,867	1,550,248	251,342	2,060,971	80,065	184,693	.....
1828,	4,814,258	1,484,856	204,770	3,097,752	317,466	781,863	.....
1829,	5,026,761	1,255,310	311,931	2,535,467	915,190	416,118	.....
1830,	5,235,241	1,120,095	302,833	2,491,466	1,431,883	182,585	.....
1831,	5,166,745	1,207,154	198,504	2,375,829	928,103	413,758	.....
1832,	4,293,954	1,439,182	288,316	3,890,845	1,560,171	504,623	.....
1833,	5,452,818	1,524,622	267,740	5,089,693	1,377,117	334,130	.....
1834,	8,066,068	1,727,188	170,968	4,729,969	1,430,118	787,409	.....
1835,	9,490,446	1,662,764	215,450	5,574,466	878,618	917,095	.....
1836,	5,615,819	1,696,650	195,304	7,210,190	1,053,503	811,497	.....
1837,	5,654,002	1,567,345	163,402	4,991,893	1,000,002	1,180,156	$163,384
1838,	3,500,709	1,615,249	155,614	3,191,238	1,029,539	942,095	165,718

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM DIFFERENT COUNTRIES—Continued.

Statement of the value of Articles imported into the United States, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Mexico.	Venezuela, New Grenada, and Ecuador.	Central America.	Brazil.	Argentine and Ciaplatine republics.	Chili.	Texas.
1839,	$83,127,153	$2,073,216	$192,845	$5,292,955	$1,150,546	$1,186,641	$318,116
1840,	4,175,001	1,572,548	189,021	4,927,296	787,964	1,616,859	303,847
1841,	3,284,957	2,156,121	186,911	6,302,653	1,957,747	1,230,980	395,026
1842,	1,995,696	1,720,558	124,994	5,948,814	2,417,541	831,039	480,892

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

1.—*A Statement of the value of the Cotton, Tobacco, Rice, Flour, Pork, Hogs, Lard, &c., Beef, Cattle, Hides, &c., exported from the United States annually, from* 1821 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

Years.	Cotton.	Tobacco.	Rice.	Flour.	Pork, hogs, lard, &c.	Beef, cattle, hides, &c.
1821,	$20,157,484	$5,648,962	$1,494,307	$4,298,043	$1,354,116	$698,323
1822,	24,035,058	6,222,838	1,563,482	5,103,280	1,357,899	844,534
1823,	20,445,520	6,282,872	1,820,985	4,962,373	1,291,322	739,461
1824,	21,947,401	4,855,566	1,882,982	5,759,176	1,489,051	707,299
1825,	36,846,649	6,115,623	1,925,245	4,212,127	1,832,679	930,465
1826,	25,025,214	5,347,208	1,917,445	4,121,466	1,892,429	733,430
1827,	29,359,545	6,816,146	2,343,908	4,434,881	1,555,698	772,636
1828,	22,487,229	5,480,707	2,620,696	4,283,669	1,495,830	719,961
1829,	26,575,311	5,185,370	2,514,370	5,000,023	1,493,629	674,955
1830,	29,674,883	5,833,112	1,986,824	6,132,129	1,315,245	717,683
1831,	25,289,492	4,892,388	2,016,267	10,461,728	1,501,644	829,982
1832,	31,724,682	5,999,769	2,152,361	4,974,121	1,928,196	774,087
1833,	36,191,105	5,755,968	2,774,418	5,642,602	2,151,588	955,076
1834,	49,448,402	6,595,305	2,122,292	4,560,379	1,796,001	755,219
1835,	64,661,302	8,250,577	2,210,331	4,394,777	1,776,732	638,761
1836,	71,284,925	10,058,640	2,548,750	3,572,599	1,383,344	699,166
1837,	63,240,102	5,795,647	2,309,279	2,987,269	1,299,796	585,146
1838,	61,556,811	7,392,029	1,721,819	3,603,299	1,312,346	528,231
1839,	61,238,982	9,832,943	2,460,198	6,925,170	1,777,230	371,646
1840,	63,870,307	9,883,957	1,942,076	10,143,615	1,894,894	623,373
1841,	54,330,341	12,576,703	2,010,107	7,759,646	2,621,537	904,918
1842,	47,593,464	9,540,755	1,907,387	7,375,356	2,629,403	1,212,638

2.—*A Statement of the value of the Butter and Cheese, Skins and Furs, Fish, Lumber, Manufactures, Specie, and Bullion, exported from the United States annually, from* 1821 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

Years.	Butter and cheese.	Skins and furs.	Fish.	Lumber.	Manufactures.	Specie and bullion.
1821,	$190,287	$766,205	$973,591	$1,512,808	$2,752,631	$10,478,059
1822,	221,041	501,302	915,838	1,307,670	3,121,030	10,810,180
1823,	192,778	672,917	1,004,800	1,335,600	3,139,598	6,372,987
1824,	204,205	661,455	1,136,704	1,734,586	4,841,383	7,014,522
1825,	247,787	524,692	1,078,773	1,717,571	5,729,797	8,797,055
1826,	207,765	582,473	924,922	2,011,694	5,495,130	4,663,795
1827,	184,049	441,690	987,447	1,697,170	5,536,651	8,014,880
1828,	176,354	626,235	1,066,663	1,821,906	5,548,354	8,243,473
1829,	176,205	526,507	968,068	1,680,403	5,412,320	4,924,020
1830,	142,370	641,760	756,677	1,836,014	5,320,989	2,178,773
1831,	264,796	750,938	929,834	1,964,195	5,086,890	9,014,931
1832,	290,820	691,909	1,056,721	2,096,707	5,050,633	5,656,340
1833,	258,452	841,933	990,290	2,569,492	6,557,080	2,611,701
1834,	190,099	797,844	863,674	2,435,314	6,247,893	2,076,758
1835,	164,809	759,953	1,008,534	3,323,057	7,694,073	6,477,775
1836,	114,038	653,662	967,890	2,860,691	6,107,528	4,324,386
1837,	96,176	651,908	769,840	3,155,990	7,136,997	5,976,249
1838,	148,191	636,945	819,003	3,166,186	8,397,078	3,513,565
1839,	127,550	732,087	850,538	3,604,399	8,325,082	8,776,743
1840,	210,749	1,237,789	720,164	2,926,846	9,873,462	8,417,014
1841,	504,815	993,262	751,783	3,576,805	9,953,020	10,034,332
1842,	388,185	598,487	730,106	3,239,608	8,410,694	4,813,539

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

A Statement exhibiting the value of Domestic Produce and Manufactures exported, and the countries to which the same were exported, annually, from 1821 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

Years.	Great Britain and dependencies.	France and dependencies.	Spain and dependencies.	Netherlands and dependencies.	Sweden and dependencies.	Denmark and dependencies.
1821,	$26,522,572	$6,474,718	$7,209,275	$6,092,061	$777,407	$3,327,882
1822,	30,041,337	7,075,332	8,438,212	5,801,639	921,434	2,434,046
1823,	27,571,060	9,568,924	10,963,308	7,767,075	558,291	1,955,071
1824,	28,027,845	10,552,304	15,367,278	3,617,389	569,428	2,183,252
1825,	44,217,525	11,891,326	5,921,549	5,895,499	569,550	2,701,088
1826,	28,980,019	12,106,429	6,687,351	4,794,070	358,380	2,412,875
1827,	32,870,465	13,565,356	7,321,991	3,826,674	850,877	2,404,822
1828,	27,020,209	12,098,341	7,204,627	3,083,359	1,106,954	3,348,167
1829,	28,071,084	12,832,304	6,888,094	4,622,120	957,948	2,311,174
1830,	31,647,881	11,806,238	6,049,051	4,562,437	961,729	2,014,085
1831,	39,901,379	9,882,679	5,661,420	3,096,609	540,078	2,000,793
1832,	37,268,556	13,244,698	6,399,183	6,035,466	515,140	2,207,551
1833,	39,881,486	14,424,533	6,506,041	3,566,361	420,069	1,839,834
1834,	50,797,650	16,111,442	6,296,556	4,578,739	494,741	1,857,114
1835,	60,107,134	20,335,066	7,069,279	4,411,053	602,593	1,780,496
1836,	64,487,550	21,441,200	8,081,668	4,799,157	700,386	2,122,469
1837,	61,218,813	20,255,346	7,604,002	4,285,767	507,523	1,640,173
1838,	58,843,392	16,252,413	7,684,006	3,772,206	355,852	1,299,927
1839,	68,169,082	18,924,413	7,724,429	2,871,239	470,914	1,406,346
1840,	70,420,846	22,349,154	7,617,347	4,546,085	652,546	1,193,500
1841,	62,376,402	22,235,575	7,181,409	3,288,741	771,210	1,987,283
1842,	52,306,650	18,738,860	6,323,295	4,270,770	477,965	1,047,673

A Statement exhibiting the value of Domestic Produce, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Portugal and dependencies.	China.	Hanse Towns.	Russia.	Italy.	Hayti.
1821,	$435,700	$4,290,560	$2,132,544	$628,894	$1,099,667	$2,270,601
1822,	427,491	5,935,368	2,505,015	529,081	1,450,184	2,119,811
1823,	246,648	4,636,061	3,169,439	648,734	1,067,905	2,378,782
1824,	518,836	5,301,171	1,863,273	231,981	664,348	2,365,155
1825,	408,160	5,570,515	3,121,033	287,401	645,039	2,054,615
1826,	313,553	2,566,644	2,116,697	174,648	530,221	1,414,494
1827,	357,270	3,864,405	3,013,185	382,244	610,221	1,331,909
1828,	291,614	1,482,802	2,995,251	450,495	920,750	1,332,711
1829,	322,911	1,354,862	3,277,160	386,226	901,012	975,158
1830,	279,799	742,193	2,274,880	416,575	740,360	823,178
1831,	294,383	1,290,835	2,592,172	462,766	694,525	1,318,375
1832,	296,218	1,260,522	4,088,212	582,682	687,563	1,669,003
1833,	442,561	1,433,759	2,903,296	703,805	372,186	1,427,963
1834,	322,496	1,010,483	4,659,674	330,694	493,557	1,436,952
1835,	521,413	1,868,580	3,528,276	585,447	285,941	1,815,812
1836,	191,007	1,194,264	4,363,882	911,013	664,059	1,240,039
1837,	423,705	.....	3,754,949	1,306,732	623,677	1,011,981
1838,	232,131	1,516,602	3,291,645	1,048,289	459,893	910,255
1839,	244,354	1,533,601	2,801,067	1,239,246	438,152	1,122,559
1840,	321,256	909,966	4,035,964	1,169,481	1,473,185	1,027,214
1841,	349,113	1,200,816	4,560,716	1,025,729	912,318	1,155,557
1842,	302,964	1,444,397	4,564,513	836,593	820,517	899,966

A Statement exhibiting the value of Domestic Produce, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Mexico.	Venezuela, New Grenada, and Ecuador.	Central America.	Brazil.	Argentine and Cisplatine republics.	Chili.	Texas.
1821,	.....	.....	.....	$1,381,760	.....	.....	.....
1822,	.....	.....	.....	1,463,929	.....	.....	.....
1823,	.....	.....	.....	1,341,390	.....	.....	.....
1824,	.....	.....	.....	2,301,904	.....	.....	.....
1825,	$6,470,144	$2,239,255	$99,522	2,393,754	$573,590	$921,438	.....

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

A Statement exhibiting the value of Domestic Produce, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Mexico.	Venezuela, New Grenada, and Ecuador.	Central America.	Brazil.	Argentine and Cisplatine republics.	Chili.	Texas.
1826,	$6,281,050	$1,952,672	$119,774	$2,300,349	$379,340	$1,447,498	.....
1827,	4,173,257	944,534	224,772	1,863,806	151,204	1,702,601	.....
1828,	2,886,484	884,524	159,272	1,988,705	154,228	2,629,402	.....
1829,	2,331,151	767,348	239,854	1,929,927	626,052	1,421,134	.....
1830,	4,837,458	496,990	250,118	1,843,238	629,887	1,536,114	.....
1831,	6,178,218	658,149	306,497	2,076,095	659,779	1,368,155	.....
1832,	3,467,541	1,117,024	335,307	2,054,794	923,040	1,221,119	.....
1833,	5,408,091	957,543	575,016	3,272,101	699,728	1,463,940	.....
1834,	5,265,053	795,567	184,149	2,059,351	971,837	1,476,355	.....
1835,	9,029,221	1,064,016	183,793	2,608,656	708,918	941,884	.....
1836,	6,041,635	829,255	189,518	3,094,936	384,933	937,917	.....
1837,	3,880,323	1,080,109	157,663	1,743,209	273,872	1,487,799	$1,007,928
1838,	2,164,097	724,739	243,040	2,657,194	296,994	1,370,264	1,247,880
1839,	2,787,362	750,785	216,242	2,637,485	465,363	1,794,553	1,687,082
1840,	2,515,241	919,123	217,946	2,506,574	519,006	1,728,829	1,218,271
1841,	2,036,620	872,937	149,913	3,517,273	818,170	1,102,988	808,296
1842,	1,534,233	769,936	68,466	2,601,502	681,228	1,639,676	406,929

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF ENGLAND.

We have compiled, from official parliamentary documents, the following table of the value of imports into, and exports from, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, during each of the five years ending the 5th of January, 1843:—

Years.	Value of imports.*	Value of exports.†	Value of exports.‡	Total exports.§	Val. of produce, &c., U. Kingd'm exported.‖
1839,	£61,268,320	£92,459,231	£12,711,318	£105,170,549	£50,060,970
1840,	62,004,000	97,402,726	12,795,990	110,198,716	53,233,580
1841,	67,432,964	102,705,372	13,774,306	116,479,678	51,406,430
1842,	64,377,962	102,180,517	14,723,151	116,903,668	51,634,623
1843,	65,204,729	100,260,101	13,584,158	113,844,259	47,364,023

We now proceed to lay before our readers the articles, quantities, and declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures, exported from the United Kingdom, for the year ending 5th of January, 1843:—

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared val.
Apparel, slops, and haberdashery,		£1,143,270
Arms and ammunition,		383,606
Bacon and hams,	cwts. 16,446	48,186
Beef and pork,	bbls. 18,252	56,437
Beer and ale,	141,313	343,740
Books, printed,	cwts. 7,364	132,019
Brass and copper manufactures,	395,210	1,810,742
Butter and cheese,	61,603	229,931
Coals, culm, and cinders,	tons 1,999,504	734,000
Cordage,	cwts. 38,903	75,214

* Value of imports into the United Kingdom, calculated at the official rate of valuation.

† Value of exports, from the United Kingdom, of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom, calculated at the official rates of valuation.

‡ Value of exports of foreign and colonial merchandise, calculated at the official rates of valuation.

§ Total value of exports, at the same rate of calculation.

‖ Value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom, exported therefrom, according to the real or declared value thereof.

Articles.	Quantities.	Dec'd value.
Cotton manufactures,.....yards	734,098,809	£12,877,220
Hosiery, lace, and small wares,.....		1,020,664
Cotton twist and yarn,.....lbs.	137,466,892	7,771,464
Earthenware,.....pieces	52,937,454	555,430
Fish, herrings,.....bbls.	166,997	166,079
Glass, entered by weight,.....cwts.	257,354	298,139
" at value,.....		12,013
Hardware and cutlery,.....cwts.	304,240	1,398,487
Hats, beaver and felt,.....dozen	15,423	63,119
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought,.....tons	369,398	2,457,717
Lead and shot,.....	20,208	359,590
Leather, wrought and unwrought,.....lbs.	2,621,601	321,007
Saddlery and harness,.....		79,920
Linen manufactures,.....yards	69,232,682	2,217,373
Thread, tapes, and small wares,.....		129,376
Linen yarn,.....lbs.	29,490,987	1,025,551
Machinery and mill-work,.....		554,653
Painters' colors,.....		186,072
Plate, plated ware, jewelry, and watches,.....		201,511
Salt,.....bushels	10,776,129	201,311
Silk manufactures,.....		590,189
Soap and candles,.....lbs.	18,602,064	317,023
Stationery,.....		238,742
Sugar, refined,.....cwts.	274,735	440,175
Tin, unwrought,.....	61,764	200,956
Tin and pewter wares, and tin-plate,.....		363,685
Wool, sheep and lambs',.....lbs.	8,578,691	509,822
Woollen, and worsted yarn,.....	5,962,401	637,305
Woollen manufactures entered by the piece,.....pieces	2,196,944	4,299,526
" entered by the yard,.....yards	10,725,859	667,841
Hosiery, and small wares,.....		217,678
All other articles,.....		2,029,240
Total,.....		£47,381,023

Countries to which the preceding were Exported.

	Declared value.		Declared value.
Russia,.....	£1,885,953	Cape of Good Hope,.....	£369,076
Sweden,.....	199,313	African ports on the Red sea,	262
Norway,.....	134,704	Cape de Verd islands,.....	1,480
Denmark,.....	194,304	St. Helena,.....	17,530
Prussia,.....	376,651	Ascension island,.....	1,145
Germany,.....	6,202,700	Mauritius,.....	244,922
Holland,.....	3,573,362	Arabia,.....	5,888
Belgium,.....	1,099,490	East India Company's Territories, and Ceylon,.....	5,169,208
France,.....	3,193,939	Sumatra, Java, and islands in the Indian seas,.....	306,132
Portugal, Proper,.....	947,855	Philippine islands,.....	47,019
" Azores,.....	39,862	China,.....	969,381
" Madeira,.....	25,047	Australian settlements,.....	916,164
Spain, and Balearic islands,..	322,614	New Zealand,.....	42,756
" Canaries,.....	54,554	South Sea islands,.....	30
Gibraltar,.....	937,719	British North America,.....	2,333,525
Italy, and Italian islands,....	2,494,197	British West Indies,.....	2,591,425
Malta,.....	289,304	Hayti,.....	141,896
Ionian islands,.....	83,600	Cuba, and Foreign West Indies,.....	711,938
Morea, and Greek islands,...	17,538	United States of America,....	3,528,807
Turkey,.....	1,472,288	Texas,.....	6,574
Syria and Palestine,.....	375,551	Mexico,.....	374,969
Egypt,.....	221,003	Colombia,.....	231,711
Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco,.....	44,952		
Western Africa,.....	459,685		

COUNTRIES TO WHICH THE PRECEDING WERE EXPORTED—Continued.

	Declared value.
Brazil,.....	£1,756,805
Rio de la Plata,.....	969,791
Chili,.....	950,466
Peru,.....	684,313
Falkland islands,.....	384
Southern whale fishery,.....	£15
Guernsey, Jersey, Man, &c.,	364,350
Total,.....	£47,381,023

Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures, exported to the West India Colonies, to the British Colonies in North America, and to the East India Company's Territories, and Ceylon, in the undermentioned years.

Years.	British West Indies.	British North America.	E. I. Co.'s Territories, and Ceylon.	Years.	British West Indies.	British North America.	E. I. Co.'s Territories, and Ceylon.
1831,	£2,581,949	£2,089,327	£2,829,711	1837,	£3,456,745	£2,141,035	£3,612,975
1832,	2,439,808	2,075,725	2,969,123	1838,	3,393,441	1,992,457	3,876,196
1833,	2,597,589	2,092,550	2,864,724	1839,	3,986,598	3,047,671	4,748,607
1834,	2,680,024	1,671,069	2,576,229	1840,	3,584,970	2,847,913	6,023,192
1835,	3,187,540	2,158,158	3,192,692	1841,	2,504,004	2,947,061	5,595,000
1836,	3,786,453	2,732,291	4,285,829	1842,	2,591,425	2,333,525	5,169,888

Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures, exported to the United States of America in the undermentioned years.

Years.	Apparel, slops, and haberdashery.	Brass and copper manufactures.	Cotton manufactures, including cotton yarn.	Earthenware.	Hardwares and cutlery.	Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought.
1833,	£127,911	£158,456	£1,733,047	£221,661	£711,305	£412,515
1834,	106,282	87,840	1,678,402	198,901	647,216	322,156
1835,	228,261	166,060	2,729,430	246,220	978,491	408,368
1836,	254,269	270,028	2,491,719	495,512	1,318,412	912,387
1837,	75,265	115,782	725,753	212,632	574,876	489,309
1838,	164,151	140,722	1,476,267	313,749	661,704	634,395
1839,	180,019	129,226	1,467,082	400,164	849,640	801,198
1840,	109,341	107,473	1,123,439	179,933	334,065	355,534
1841,	137,088	104,153	1,515,933	225,479	584,400	626,532
1842,	84,893	89,952	487,276	168,873	298,881	394,854

Declared Value of British and Irish Produce, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Linen manufactures, including linen yarn.	Silk manufactures.	Tin and pewter wares, tin unwrought, and tin plates.	Woollen manufactures, including woollen yarn.	Other British and Irish goods.	Total.
1833,	£832,612	£251,278	£141,259	£2,289,883	£699,772	£7,579,699
1834,	1,049,560	200,306	168,840	1,755,030	630,456	6,844,989
1835,	1,565,476	537,040	193,901	2,657,230	857,978	10,568,455
1836,	1,688,012	524,301	246,378	3,199,198	1,025,389	12,425,605
1837,	585,787	109,629	139,868	1,062,938	603,686	4,695,225
1838,	944,589	348,506	241,296	1,887,177	773,204	7,585,760
1839,	1,268,823	410,093	200,505	2,178,645	953,809	8,839,204
1840,	976,247	274,159	174,033	1,077,828	570,968	5,283,020
1841,	1,232,247	306,757	223,809	1,549,926	592,318	7,098,642
1842,	463,645	81,243	144,451	892,335	422,404	3,528,807

Number and Tonnage of Vessels employed in the Foreign Trade of the United Kingdom, distinguishing the countries to which they belonged, which entered inwards, and cleared outwards, in the year ending 5th January, 1843, stated exclusively of vessels in ballast.

Countries to which the vessels belonged.	ENTERED INWARDS. Ships.	Tonnage.	CLEARED OUTWARDS. Ships.	Tonnage.
United Kingdom and its dependencies,.....	13,823	2,680,838	15,198	2,735,073
Russia,.....	220	65,249	127	38,269
Sweden,.....	207	32,232	198	27,054
Norway,.....	679	107,429	264	30,929
Denmark,.....	756	54,066	1,092	87,457
Prussia,.....	711	138,431	605	108,917

Number and Tonnage of Vessels employed in the Foreign Trade of the United Kingdom, distinguishing the countries to which they belonged, etc.—Continued.

Countries to which the vessels belonged.	Entered inwards. Ships.	Tonnage.	Cleared outwards. Ships.	Tonnage.
Other German states,	863	74,338	967	91,752
Holland,	481	40,509	512	49,735
Belgium,	256	35,819	354	53,118
France,	801	39,256	1,250	93,533
Spain,	79	11,331	66	9,089
Portugal,	31	3,544	27	3,217
Italian States,	182	43,732	159	38,016
Other European states,	6	1,727	3	944
United States of America,	574	325,814	576	323,329
Other states in America, Africa, or Asia,	6	1,301	5	1,492
Total,	19,675	3,655,606	21,403	3,691,664

Average Annual Number of Ships, and their Tonnage, which entered and cleared the ports of the United Kingdom, from and to the East India Company's Territories and Ceylon, British West Indies, and British North America, in the six years from 1831 *to* 1836, *inclusive, and from* 1837 *to* 1842, *inclusive.*

	Entered inwards. Ships.	Tons.	Cl'd outwards. Ships.	Tons.
1831–36—E. I. Company's Territories, and Ceylon,	188	79,204	202	88,920
1837–42— " " " "	329	149,064	323	156,141
1831–36—British West Indies,	889	241,046	873	239,154
1837–42— " "	761	201,178	868	233,663
1831–36—British North America,	1,939	545,632	1,862	506,159
1837–42— " "	2,098	699,608	1,777	582,672

Number of Ships, with the amount of Tonnage, which entered the undermentioned ports in 1842.

	British. Ships.	Tons.	Foreign. Ships.	Tons.
London,	4,767	1,002,453	1,640	281,468
Liverpool,	2,501	618,624	978	369,966
Bristol,	336	63,227	49	9,671
Hull,	963	186,081	930	101,791
Newcastle,	1,687	249,909	1,005	127,221
Plymouth,	316	35,285	59	10,074
Leith,	273	44,541	281	23,654
Glasgow,	221	41,834	39	7,950
Greenock,	152	42,754	5	1,522
Cork,	191	34,416	24	3,707
Belfast,	118	26,798	32	3,523
Dublin,	217	38,529	44	5,966

Quantities of Sugar imported and entered for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, in the years 1840, 1841, *and* 1842, *showing the Nett Revenue, Prices, &c.*

	1840. Cwts.	1841. Cwts.	1842. Cwts.
Total imported,	4,035,845	4,905,018	4,756,011
British Plantation,	2,202,833	2,145,500	2,508,910
Mauritius,	545,009	716,112	689,335
British East India,	482,836	1,239,738	940,452
Foreign,	805,167	803,668	617,314
Total retained for consumption,	3,594,834	4,657,628	3,868,466
viz :—			
British Plantation and Mauritius,	3,074,198	2,991,953	2,932,415
British East India,	518,320	1,065,414	935,948
Foreign,	2,316	261	103
Nett revenue,	£4,449,070	£5,114,390	£4,874,812
Gazette price of Muscovado,	49*s.* 1*d.*	39*s.* 8*d.*	36*s.* 11*d.*
Average prices of Brazil sugar, brown and yellow,	21*s.* 6*d.*	20*s.* 9*d.*	18*s.* 3*d.*

An Account of the Quantities of Sugar, Raw and Refined, imported into the United Kingdom in the year 1842.

From	Cwts.	From	Cwts.
Antigua,	147,414	British East Indies, except Singapore,	942,135
Barbadoes,	312,563	Singapore,	3,947
Dominica,	55,278	Ceylon,	4
Grenada,	83,836	Siam,	5,582
Jamaica,	779,149	Java,	24,922
Montserrat,	13,685	Philippine islands,	63,464
Nevis,	23,853	New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land,	2
St. Christopher,	95,634	Cuba,	207,602
St. Lucia,	65,564	Porto Rico,	40,232
St. Vincent,	127,269	Surinam,	40
Tobago,	46,913	United States of America,	2
Tortola,	5,866	Mexico,	3
Trinidad,	286,005	Columbia,	16
Bahamas,	455	Brazil,	260,068
Bermudas,	1	Europe,	6,266
Demarara,	375,318		
Berbice,	89,922	Total,	4,756,011
North American colonies,	3,669		
Mauritius,	689,332		

In 1842, there arrived from China, in the port of London, 55 ships, tonnage 2,576; Liverpool, 13 ships, tonnage 5,135; Hull and Bristol, 1 ship, tonnage 493; Clyde, and other British ports, 3 ships, tonnage 1,170. Total, 72 ships; tonnage, 32,509; men, 1,682.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS OF FRANCE.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE PRODUCTION OF GRAIN IN FRANCE AND THE UNITED STATES.

The following table, compiled from official French documents, exhibits the quantities of agricultural productions of France for 1841, with their values in francs, and the quantities consumed in 1841. It will be seen, from this table, that the quantity of grain produced in France in 1841 was, in bushels, 547,550,443. The quantity of the same grains produced in the United States was, for the same year, 533,988,970 bushels. The comparison is as follows:—

	Population.	Products of grain.
France,	31,200,000	547,550,443 bushels.
United States,	17,062,566	533,988,970 "

Quantities of Agricultural Productions of France for 1841, *with their Values, and the Quantities consumed.*

Articles.	Quantity consumed.	Quantity produced.	Value of production.
Wheat, hecto.	57,621,243	69,558,062	f. 1,102,768,057
Rye,	22,239,146	27,811,700	296,292,740
Barley,	12,402,411	16,661,462	137,622,011
Oats,	36,599,689	48,899,785	302,011,470
Indian corn,	6,657,482	7,620,264	71,796,084
Other grain,	11,356,109	11,965,575	144,977,074
Total grain, hecto.	146,876,080	182,516,848	f. 2,055,467,836
" " bush.	403,909,220	547,550,443	$385,400,205
Potatoes,	78,440,554	96,233,985	f. 202,105,866
Buckwheat,	6,998,959	8,469,788	61,388,641
Beets, quin. met.	15,090,440	15,740,691	28,979,449
Cabbage, kilo.	356,741	888,289	951,559
Rape seed,	1,948,394	2,279,363	51,126,714
Hemp seed, hecto.	1,168,481	1,671,641	.....
" raw, kilo.	57,976,909	67,507,076	86,287,341

Quantities of Agricultural Productions of France for 1841, *etc.*—Continued.

Articles.	Quantity consumed.	Quantity produced.	Value of production.
Flax seed,.....hecto.	477,169	737,394	.....
" raw,.....kilo.	36,742,356	36,875,401	f. 57,507,216
Madder,.....	160,340	160,340	9,343,349
Olives,.....	172,575	167,330	.....
Tobacco,.....quin. met.	.....	88,897	5,483,558
Chesnuts,.....	3,334,095	3,487,582	13,528,190
Wine,.....hecto.	23,578,248	36,783,223	419,029,152
Brandy,.....	701,663	1,088,802	52,059,150
Beer,.....	3,896,537	3,885,365	53,035,735
Cider,.....	10,011,956	10,880,947	84,422,137
Horticulture,.....	.....	.....	157,093,888
Mulberry,.....	.....	.....	42,779,088
Other vegetables,.....	.....	.....	64,217,738
Grand total value, ...francs,			3,479,583,005
" " " .....dollars,			652,221,812

In the United States, Indian corn and oats are of the largest quantity. In France, wheat is the most bulky. The United States produced, of the latter, 91,662,957 bushels, and France 192,026,669 bushels, which is about the same proportion to each inhabitant in each country. All other grains, in the United States, are immensely in excess of the French production, which varies greatly in different years. In unfavorable years, a very large import of grain is necessary. The effect of this import is, to exhaust the stocks of grain in the large European markets, and, in case of a deficit in England, to throw the latter almost entirely upon the United States for her supplies. This effect, of late years, has been much heightened by the necessity, which France is under, of sending large supplies of grain to her colony of Algiers and her West India islands. Each year, both on the continent and in England, the political disasters which threaten, in the train of a deficient harvest, are assuming a more serious aspect. The rapid growth of manufactures, on the continent, is fast withdrawing capital from the poor and unprofitable cultivation of worn-out lands, consequently diminishing the supply of food, and increasing the sources of uneasiness of the several governments.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE AGES OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, ENGLAND AND WALES.

The following "first-rate" table, from the Boston Morning Post, shows the ages of the population of England and Wales, as ascertained by the census of 1841, and the white population of the United States, according to the census of 1840, with the proportion of persons of each age in every 10,000 of the population. The most striking facts shown by this table, are the excess of females in England and Wales, and of males in the United States; and that while, in the United States, considerably more than half of the population are under 20 years of age, in England the reverse is the case. The excess of males in this country may be accounted for by the large number of male emigrants who arrive here; and the excess of females in England by the emigration of the males, and the large number of the same sex employed in the army and navy, and the foreign commerce of the nation. The other fact is more easily explained. In England, the difficulty of supporting a family prevents one-fifth of the population over 20 years of age from marrying—in this country, the means of living are so easily obtained, that nearly all the population marry. In England, about 4,000 out of every 10,000 children born, die under the age of five years—in this country, (principally from the superior comforts of

the laboring classes,) the mortality among children is much less. A consideration of these facts will prevent the reader from forming the opinion (to which a mere glance at the two last columns of the table would be likely to give rise) that the average duration of life is longer in England than in the United States. In England and Wales, the number of persons over 100 years of age is 249—one in 63,252; in the United States, (white and colored,) 2,769—one in 6,169.

ENGLAND AND WALES—1841.

Ages.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 5 years,.....	1,042,718	1,056,434	2,099,152
5 and under 10,.....	948,087	950,345	1,898,432
10 " 15,.....	875,714	850,448	1,726,162
15 " 20,.....	777,400	803,955	1,581,355
20 " 30,.....	1,327,083	1,496,638	2,823,721
30 " 40,.....	994,437	1,050,022	2,044,459
40 " 50,.....	745,069	776,404	1,521,473
50 " 60,.....	494,207	528,528	1,022,735
60 " 70,.....	328,058	368,977	697,035
70 " 80,.....	158,823	184,208	343,031
80 " 90,.....	41,036	53,089	94,125
90 " 100,.....	2,972	4,960	7,932
100 and upwards,.....	82	167	249
Under 20 years,.....	3,644,461	3,661,302	7,305,763
Over 20 years,.....	4,091,225	4,462,873	8,554,098
Total,.....	7,735,686	8,124,175	15,859,861

UNITED STATES—1840.

Ages.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Prop. in 10,000. England.	U. States.
Under 5 years,.....	1,270,743	1,203,319	2,474,062	1,324	1,742
5 and under 10,....	1,024,050	986,940	2,010,990	1,197	1,416
10 " 15,....	879,530	836,630	1,716,160	1,089	1,208
15 " 20,....	756,106	792,223	1,548,329	997	1,090
20 " 30,....	1,322,453	1,253,490	2,575,943	1,780	1,812
30 " 40,....	866,452	799,120	1,665,572	1,289	1,172
40 " 50,....	536,606	502,183	1,038,789	959	731
50 " 60,....	314,528	304,852	619,380	645	435
60 " 70,....	174,238	173,329	347,567	440	245
70 " 80,....	80,067	80,565	160,632	216	113
80 " 90,....	21,677	23,962	45,639	59	32
90 " 100,....	2,508	3,232	5,740	5	4
100 and upwards,.....	476	316	792	...	...
Under 20 years,.....	3,930,429	3,819,112	7,749,541	4,609	5,387
Over 20 years,.....	3,319,005	3,141,049	6,460,054	5,391	4,613
Total,.....	7,249,434	6,960,161	14,209,595	10,000	10,000

In the foregoing table, the colored population of this country is not included. In 1840, it was as follows:—*Free*—Males, 186,481; females, 199,822. *Slaves*—Males, 1,246,517; females, 1,240,938. Total, 2,873,758. Below will be found a comparison made from the only data which our census affords:—

PROPORTION, AT EACH AGE, IN EVERY 10,000.

England and Wales. Ages.		United States. Free col.	Slaves.	England and Wales. Ages.		United States. Free col.	Slaves.
Under 10 years,....	2,521	2,883	3,397	55 and under 100,	966	757	406
10 and under 24,	2,865	2,831	3,139	100 and upwards,..	none*	17	5
24 " 36,	1,845	1,994	1,910	Under 24,.....	5,386	5,714	6,536
36 " 55,	1,803	1,518	1,143	Over 24,.....	4,614	4,286	3,464

* One in 63,252.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

METHOD OF FORWARDING PARCELS AND CASES FROM ENGLAND TO INDIA, BY THE OVERLAND ROUTE.

HENRY GRIBBLE, residing at Macao, under date of May 5th, 1843, gives notice, in the Hong-Kong Gazette and Friend of China, that he has been requested by Messrs. James Barber & Co., 17 St. Mary Axe, London, to make public the following terms for freight per India overland route; and that he will forward instructions from parties wishing to avail themselves of the convenient arrangements offered by Messrs. Barber & Co.'s agency, London. We publish the notice of Messrs. James Hartley & Co., and James Barber & Co., for the benefit of American merchants, and others interested in communicating with ndia and China, as follows:—

Under arrangements with the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, the undersigned are prepared to convey parcels, by the mail, at the following reduced rates, if delivered on or before the 27th of each month; from which date, until four o'clock on the last day of the month, an extra charge of one shilling per pound will be incurred, and beyond which time no package, whatever, can be received for conveyance by the mail of that month.

Weight.	Measurement.	£	s.	d.	Weight.	Measurement.	£	s.	d.
Pkgs. und. 1 lb.,	0¼ cubic feet,..	0	6	6	Pkgs. und. 15 lbs.,	1 cubic feet,.	2	0	0
" 2	0½ " ..	0	10	0	" 20	1½ "	2	10	0
" 4	0¾ " ..	1	0	0	" 25	1¾ "	2	15	0
" 6	0¾ " ..	1	5	0	" 30	2 "	3	0	0
" 10	0¾ " ..	1	10	0	" 40	2½ "	3	10	0

Goods in packages larger or heavier than the above, will be taken by special agreement. The freight will be computed by either weight or measure.

Jewelry, &c.—Not accountable for any package beyond the value of £10, unless an additional freight of 2 per cent be paid on delivery.

Periodicals.—If brought by four o'clock on the last day of the month, (being that of publication,) made up like newspapers, (open at both ends,) will be charged—¼ lb., 1*s.*; ½ lb., 1*s.* 9*d.*; from 1 lb. to 10 lbs., 3*s.* per lb.

Risk.—To be at the proprietor's risk, from London to India, unless insured at the time of delivery, for which a charge of 2½ per cent will be made.

Transit Duty.—Through Egypt, ½ per cent, (payable to the Egyptian government, under agreement with the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company,) on the value of every article, will be added to the above rates.

Receipt.—Receipts will be given on the delivery of each parcel, and particulars of all charges will be specified in the receipt.

Consignment.—All packages must be applied for to our agents, at each presidency. To facilitate such applications, the marks and particulars will be advertised in the Monthly Times newspaper, which, being despatched by the same mail, will furnish the earliest advice to the consignees; or, if the postage (1*s.*) be paid, we will ourselves write to the party to whom the packages are addressed.

Agents.—Calcutta, Captain J. R. Engledue; Madras, Captain Christopher Biden; Ceylon, Captain Twynam, (who are also agents to the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company;) Bombay, Messrs. William Nicol & Co.

Offices.—44 Regent-street, Piccadilly; 16 John-street, Crutched Friars; and 17 St. Mary Axe.

JAMES HARTLEY & Co.,
JAMES BARBER & Co.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

BUZZARD'S BAY MENHADEN FISHERY.

THE commercial enterprise of the citizens of Massachusetts is becoming quite proverbial. Scarcely a paper reaches us, from the eastern section of the country, that does not furnish a striking illustration of the fact. Mr. Thomas E. Sandford, of Dartmouth, has furnished the following statement of the quantity of fish, chiefly menhaden, taken in Buzzard's bay, and landed at Dartmouth, during the past season, ending in September. The fish are taken by means of seines, and are disposed of readily, at thirty cents per barrel, to agriculturists, to be used as dressing, for improving the land. Quantity taken by Swain's seine, 5,400 barrels; Rider's do., 3,000 do.; Gifford's do., 2,000 do.; Anthony's do., 2,400 do.; Cornell's do., 3,000 do.; Almy's do., 2,700 do. Total, 18,100 barrels. The whole proceeds, therefore, amount to the sum of $5,430.

BEGINNING OF WOOLLENS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The Lowell Courier contains a letter from Mr. Louis M. Norton, of Goshen, Ct., to Mr. Samuel Lawrence, of Boston, which gives the history of one of the first, if not quite the first systematic effort to manufacture woollens upon an extended scale. The scene is laid in 1813–14, and looks strangely in comparison with things in 1843. Three men, of whom Mr. Norton was one, put together a capital of $6,000, and established a factory in Goshen, which cost over $3,000. Wool cost $1 50 per pound, and badly made broadcloths brought from $8 40 to $12 per yard. One invoice of 178½ yards brought a total of $1,769 33. Another invoice of 255 yards brought $2,551 15, or more than $10 a yard. Such cloths, if they would sell at all now, would bring about $1 a yard. But, as it was, the war came to an end—a deluge of English cloths overwhelmed the little Yankee factory, and the partners settled up with the loss of the capital, and three times as much more. Such is an outline of the first essay, or one of the first, at making broadcloths in this country, and the losses were hardly an apology for the hundreds of thousands which have been lost since; through all of which, however, the Yankees have gone on undaunted, until, in many articles, they are able now to defy the skill of the old nations. In those days, merino sheep were the most beautiful animals which walked the earth, and their price was from one to fifteen hundred dollars. He was a great man who owned a sheep, and not a small man who could say that he owned a quarter of one.

CHINA TEA TRADE.

A pamphlet on the tea trade, just published, says the Bombay Times, states that, in the year 1839, the highest price of the year paid for company's Congou, at the sale price, was 2*s.* 7*d.* per lb.; the lowest, 1*s.* 5*d.* per lb.; stock on the 31st of December, 52,500,000 lbs.; stock of company's Congou, 33,000 chests; delivered for home consumption, 32,366,412 lbs.; gross duty paid, £3,365,963. In 1840, the highest price was 3*s.* 3*d.* per lb.; lowest, 1*s.* 11*d.*; stock 31st of December, 46,500,000 lbs.; stock of company's Congou, 28,700 chests; quantity delivered for home consumption, 35,136,232 lbs.; gross amount of duty paid, £3,660,008. In 1841, the highest price was 2*s.* 9*d.* per lb.; lowest, 1*s.* 4½*d.*; stock 31st of December, 36,000,000 lbs.; stock of company's Congou, 11,500 chests; quantity delivered for home consumption, 32,262,905 lbs.; gross amount of duty paid, £3,473,951. In 1842, the stock on hand of company's Congou, on the 30th November, was 8,400 chests; the highest price, 2*s.*; lowest, 1*s.* 5*d.*; stock at the close of the year, about 34,000,000 lbs.; quantity taken for home consumption, 36,000,000 lbs.; quantity delivered for exportation, stated at 4,000,000 lbs.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Rural Architecture: consisting of Classic Dwellings, Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, and Gothic, and Details connected with each of the Orders; embracing Plans, Elevations, Parallel and Perspective, etc., for Private Houses and Churches. Designed for the United States of America.* By EDWARD SHAW, Architect, author of "Civil Architecture," "Operative Masonry," etc. Boston: James B. Dow. 1843.

In this work, Mr. Shaw makes no pretension of going profoundly or minutely into the consideration of architecture, either as a science or an art. In the present work, he supposes his reader already acquainted, at least, with the elements of mathematics, and with the practical application of them to architecture, as well as with the principles of carpentry, joinery, and masonry. The object of the author is to lay before the reader a variety of plans, elevations, &c., of edifices—principally dwelling-houses, and places of public worship—with such directions, as to the more usual details and decorations, as his experience as a practical builder, for more than thirty years, has proved useful to himself, and such as he therefore supposes may be useful to others. The volume, a splendid quarto, produced in a manner highly creditable to the enterprising publisher, is divided into three parts. The first furnishes us with a concise but comprehensive account of the history and progress of the art. The second part is devoted to a delineation of the characteristics of the different styles of architecture, embracing the Egyptian style, Grecian and Roman architecture, the Tuscan, Doric, Ionic, Roman, or Composite, and the Corinthian orders. He also treats of Perseus and Caryaticles, pilasters, pedestals, pediments, Gothic architecture, the decorated English style, the perpendicular style, and the architecture of America. In the third part, we have the arrangement and construction of dwelling-houses, and of buildings in general, and more than fifty illustrative plates. Aside from the value of this work to builders, it will be found of great use to every gentleman of taste, or to those who may be desirous of selecting a style of building, either for a country or city residence, as it contains finished engravings of every variety of style. It is, moreover, as ornamental as useful, and should be found in the library of every liberal gentleman or scholar. We know of no work better calculated to impart to or foster in the young a correct knowledge and taste for the science of architecture; and as such, we recommend it to heads of families.

2.—*Mexico as it Was, and as it Is.* By BRANTZ MAYER. New York: J. Winchester, New World Press.

This is a very interesting work, on a very interesting subject, and "got up" in a very beautiful style. It is illustrated by one hundred and sixty engravings, of which thirty are printed on pages separate from the text. We have never seen any wood-cuts, executed in this country, which can compare with those before us in distinctness of outline, minuteness of detail, or general elegance. They are mostly from the author's own designs, taken during his residence in Mexico, and the public may rely upon their accuracy. In a literary point of view, Mr. Mayer's book deserves to rank among the best works of our country. The style is simple, and classically elegant; the descriptions are vivid and natural; the reflections are philosophical, without being tedious; and the incidents are admirably selected. Following, as it does, Mr. Prescott's admirable history of the Conquest of Mexico, its appearance is particularly opportune; and we are confident that a very large circle of readers will be gratified by the perusal of its brilliant pages. The letters of Mr. Mayer, at the close of the volume, on the territory, population, commerce, manufactures, mines, army, navy, revenues, church, education, &c., are replete with important statistics. The article in a former part of this Magazine, on the commerce and resources of Mexico, is selected and compiled entirely from this portion of the work.

3.—*The Æneid of Virgil, with English Notes, Critical and Explanatory, a Metrical Claris, and a Historical, Geographical, and Mythological Index.* By CHARLES ANTHON, LL. D., Jay Professor of Greek and Latin Languages in Columbia College, etc. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

The present volume, the last published of Dr. Anthon's unrivalled series of classical works, contains merely the Æneid of Virgil, the Eclogues and Georgics having been reserved for a separate work. This arrangement is judicious, as the Georgics are seldom read in our preparatory schools, but form part of a college course. The text of this edition is based upon that of Hayne; but Dr. A. has, in numerous instances, made changes in punctuation, and introduced new readings from the latest and best authorities. The student will be materially assisted by the copious notes appended to this edition by the learned editor. The metrical claris is based on that of Dr. Carey, with such improvements as the present condition of that branch of knowledge seemed to demand; while the general index contains all that is requisite for the young student, in the perusal of the poem. The volume, which is handsomely printed, embraces also a comprehensive life of Virgil. The editions of Anthon's classics, admitted on all hands to be the best extant, must necessarily supersede all others.

4.—*Lectures on Agricultural Chemistry and Geology.* By JAMES F. W. JOHNSTON, M. A., F. R. S., &c. 2 vols. 12mo. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

We noticed, in former numbers of this Magazine, the several parts of the present series of lectures, now completed, and done up in two handsome duodecimo volumes. The complete work we consider a valuable contribution to the agricultural literature of the times, which has received, during the past year or two, valuable accessions from several of the most scientific and practical minds of Germany, England, &c. Delivered before, and designed for, practical agriculturists, many of whom possess but slight, if any knowledge of scientific chemistry or geology, they commence with the discussion of these elementary principles, which are necessary to a proper understanding of each branch of the subject. For the sake of clearness, the author has divided the subject into four parts, the study of each preceding part preparing the way for a complete understanding of those which follow. Thus, the first part is devoted to the organic elements and parts of plants, the nature and sources of these elements, and an explanation of the mode in which they become converted into the substance of plants; the second to the inorganic elements of plants, comprehending the study of the soils from which these elements are derived, with the general relations of geology to agriculture; the third to the nature of manures, by which soils are made more productive, and the amount of vegetable produce increased; and the fourth to the results of vegetation to the kind and value of the food produced under different circumstances, and its relation to the growth of cattle, and to the amount and quality of dairy produce. An appendix in the second volume, of one hundred and forty pages, contains much valuable matter illustrative of the text.

5.—*Observations on Obstetric Auscultations, with an Analysis of the Evidences of Pregnancy, and an Inquiry into the Proofs of the Life and Death of the Fœtus in Uterio.* By E. KENNEDY, M. D., Licentiate of the King and Queen's College of Physicians in Ireland, Lecturer on Midwifery, &c., &c., &c. With an Appendix, containing Legal Notes, by JOHN SMITH, Esq., Barrister at Law. With Notes and Additional Illustrations, by ISAAC E. TAYLOR, M. D. 12mo., pp. 312.

This volume is designed to supply the profession in this country a desideratum they have long wanted—a work on Obstetric Auscultation—especially as only short notices have been given on this subject in the late English publications. We presume the present work will tend to a wider diffusion, and more correct opinions, than have hitherto prevailed in the profession; and that society will reap advantages from the labors of all concerned in its publication. It is beautifully printed, as are all the publications of the Langleys, and illustrated with numerous engravings.

6.—*Chronicles of England, France, Spain, and the adjoining Countries, from the latter part of the Reign of Edward II., to the Coronation of Henry IV.* By Sir JOHN FROISSART. Translated from the French, with Variations and Additions from many celebrated Manuscripts. By THOMAS JONES, Esq. New York: J. Winchester.

We took occasion to notice this work, as it appeared in numbers from the "New World Press." It is now complete, and forms a splendid super-royal octavo volume, of more than six hundred closely printed, double-columned pages, illustrated with several hundred engravings. It is replete with historical interest, and forms altogether one of the noblest contributions to the historical literature of the world ever produced. It has afforded material for the historian, novelist, and poet, in all time, since its first appearance; and is considered by the scholar a most valuable and authentic record of the men and events in Europe, from the reign of Edward II. to Henry IV. It embraces a life of the author, an essay on his works, and a criticism on his history; together with a masterly essay on the character and society of the middle ages, by the Rev. John Lord, D. D. It is an indispensable work for every complete or well-selected library, public or private; and the present, the only edition ever published in this country, supplies the student with the long wished-for desideratum, at a price within his reach.

7.—*The New York Glee-Book.* By GEORGE LODER, Principal of the New York Institute, &c., &c. New York: J. & H. G. Langley.

This volume contains more than one hundred glees, quartetts, trios, songs, rounds, and catches, composed and selected by the editor, with a true musical taste where he has given us his own compositions, and with a feeling discrimination when he has drawn upon the treasures of other living and departed masters. This work will prove very acceptable to many social circles, who delight in devoting our long winter evenings to the cultivation of a talent which elevates and refines all who labor for its attainment. The young men, who now but too often gather to trifle away precious time in frivolous, or, at best, unimproving conversation, have here a work presented to them, the study of which will do much towards awakening the best feelings of their hearts, and the highest capacities of their minds. Social music will harmonize the discordant elements in their meeting, and render what is useless now, profitable indeed. The typographical execution of the work merits the highest praise. The art of printing, which, till within a short time, has only ministered to the growth of man by *words*, an intellectual medium, has now, *in music*, found power to address his affections; and, in this two-fold, harmonious sphere of usefulness, promises again to be the highest benefactor of our race.

8.—*Flora's Interpreter; or, the American Book of Flowers and Sentiments.* By SARAH JOSEPHA HALE, editor of the "Lady's Book," and author of "Northwood," "Sketches of American Character," "School Song-Book," etc., etc. Boston: T. H. Webb & Co.

No higher encomium can, perhaps, be pronounced on this beautiful volume, than the simple fact announced on the title, viz: "the fourteenth edition." The first edition appeared in 1833. It was the first work of the kind published in this country, and has since, like almost every useful or elegant design, called forth numerous imitations. Indeed, it has been the basis of three or four similar works. Some of the imitations owe their chief excellence to the liberal drafts drawn upon the Flora of Mrs. Hale, who was the pioneer in this department of literature. The present edition is much improved, and rendered altogether the best publication of the kind in the country.

9.—*The Wrongs of Women.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. Part III.—The Little Pin-Headers. New York: M. W. Dodd. 1843.

The wrongs inflicted through the manufacturing system of England, and the sufferings incident to it, so far as regards the children employed in these establishments, are forcibly illustrated in this faithful narrative, which cannot fail of awakening the sympathy of every feeling heart. Since the above was written, we have received a neat edition of the same work, published by John S. Taylor.

10.—*Historical Sketches of Statesmen who flourished in the Time of George III. To which are added, Remarks on the French Revolution.* By HENRY LORD BROUGHAM. Third series. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 1844.

The present volume forms the third and concluding one of the series. It embraces sketches of Robespierre, Danton, Desmoulins, Sieyes, Fouche, John, fourth Duke of Bedford, Earl Camden, John Wilkes, Lord Ellenborough, Lord Chief Justice Bushe, Thomas Jefferson, Marquis of Wellesley, Lord Holland, and John Allen. The remarks of the noble author on American democracy, in connection with his sketch of Jefferson, are conceived in a liberal spirit; and his criticism on the recently published letters of Lord Sydenham, the vilifier of our country and its institutions, are searching and just. The first part relates to the French revolution, and to the men who bore the foremost part in its most trying and interesting crisis.

11.—*Map of the United States.* Engraved on steel. By SHERMAN & SMITH. New York. 1843.

The beautiful appearance of this splendid map tempted us to purchase a copy of the enterprising publishers; and, after a careful examination, we do not hesitate to pronounce it not only the largest and most complete map of the United States and the adjoining territory, but altogether, so far as our knowledge extends, the most elegant and accurate that has ever been published in this country. The map is six feet by seven, projected on a scale of twenty-four miles to the inch. The engraving, coloring, and indeed the entire finish of it, is admirable; which, with its extraordinary correctness, and minuteness of detail, render it at once a useful, ornamental, and almost indispensable fixture, for every hall, merchant's counting-room, or public office. The map is sold at $10, the price heretofore charged for inferior maps not more than half or two-thirds as large.

12.—*An Address on the Prevention of Pauperism.* By WALTER CHANNING. 12mo., pp. 84. Boston: Office of the Christian World.

Mr. Channing is a brother of the late Dr. Channing, and partakes largely of the philanthropic spirit of that good and true man. The pamphlet before us was read before the Society for the Prevention of Pauperism, in 1842. It has been considerably expanded in its dimensions, and now laid before the public in the present form. The causes of pauperism are probed with a clever hand, and the means of prevention suggested, by one who sympathizes with the woes and wants of the poor and the depressed. We commend it to the attention of all who feel for down-trodden humanity. In the existing state of society, the views of the author may not prove effectual in the prevention of the evil he is considering; but his suggestions are worthy of all consideration, and may tend to alleviate evils they cannot, for the present, entirely cure or prevent.

13.—*Poems, Narrative and Lyrical.* By WILLIAM MOTHERWELL. Boston: W. D. Ticknor

The present is the third edition of these charming poems published in America during the last eighteen months. Every poem in the volume is a gem of the first water. Of "Jeannie Morrison," "Wearie's Will," and "My Heid is like to rend, Willie," to adopt the language of the "Laird of Logan," it were idle now to speak. They are amongst the most pathetic of the Scotch muse; full of a soft voluptuousness of feeling, and steeped in a rich tissue of warm poetical feeling, like a transparent veil over a weeping beauty. In a light airiness, and graceful flexibility of language, and in a pointed but not harsh brevity of diction, in unison with a certain gaiety, and feminine elegance of thought, "Love's Diet," "Could Love Impart," &c., appear to us perfect of their kind.

14.—*The Life of the Rev. John Newton, Rector of St. Mary, Woolworth, London. Written by himself to A. D.* 1763, *and continued to his Death, in* 1807. By Rev. RICHARD CECIL, &c. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

This is, we believe, the most full and complete memoir of an eminently pious man, and devoted minister of the Gospel, republished in this country.

15.—*Woman in America; being an examination into the Moral and Intellectual condition of American Female Society.* By Mrs. A. I. Graves. 18mo., pp. 262. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

In our age and country, the influence of woman is fully felt and appreciated. Where that influence is so beneficial and extensive as with us, it seemed proper to consider their actual position, and the facts which may tend to their improvement. The subject has been most properly treated by one of her own sex in the present volume. The authoress has considered the subject with us under several aspects—the domestic woman, the fashionable woman, the religious woman, the intellectual woman; and she closes her appreciating treatise with reflections upon women who are morally great, and an instance of moral greatness. The circumstances which bear upon the character of woman in these various conditions are accurately and benevolently pourtrayed, and salutary advice is given, tending to the improvement of the female sex.

16.—*The Plea of Insanity in Criminal Cases.* By Forbes Winslow, Esq., Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1843.

It appears to be the object of the author of this work to convey to the reader a correct idea of the present state of the law in relation to the plea of insanity in criminal cases. In order to effect this object, he has referred to all the established legal and medical authorities in which this topic is made the subject of consideration, as well as to the decisions, charges, and judgments of the most illustrious ornaments of the bench, in cases where insanity has been urged as an exculpatory plea. The author has compressed within a small compass the most important facts, which he supposes may be of assistance in enabling those who have to adjudicate in cases of this description to form an accurate judgment of the presence of insanity, in any case in which it may be said to exist. The subject is one of great importance, and has been ably grappled with in this little treatise. It should be read and studied by every criminal jurist in the country.

17.—*Matins and Vespers; with Hymns, and Occasional Devotional Pieces.* By John Bowring. Boston: William D. Ticknor.

These poems richly deserve the external taste and neatness adopted by the American publisher, in the present edition; but, like the apples of gold set in pictures of silver, their inward worth transcends their outward form. Flowing from the inspiration of that goodness reflected in every soul that cometh into the world, the cultivated mind of the author has clothed them in a drapery of words in harmony with the highest conception of a chastened and refined taste.

18.—*Family Worship; containing Reflections and Prayers for Domestic Devotion.* By Otis Skinner. Boston: A. Tompkins. 1843.

This little manual appears to us admirably adapted to answer the object for which it was prepared. The prayers are brief, and expressed in language at once simple and beautiful. Devotion is here divested of sectarianism, and rendered subservient to the wants of the good, without regard to any denominational bias or feeling. The reflections appended to each prayer are concise and pertinent. On the whole, we consider it one of the best manuals in use among "all who profess and call themselves Christians."

19.—*Poems, by Mrs. Julia H. Scott. Together with a brief Memoir.* By Miss S. C. Edgarton. Boston: A. Tompkins. 1843.

Although this collection of the poetical writings of the departed poetess are not entirely faultless, yet they possess more than an ordinary share of merit. The versification is generally easy, natural, and correct, and the sentiments uniformly pure and elevated. The moral or religious sentiment predominates in them all; and no one can, we think, rise from their perusal, without experiencing emotions and feelings more in harmony with that inspiration of goodness from which they have so freely flowed.

20.—*The Social History of Great Britain during the Reigns of the Stuarts, beginning with the seventeenth century, being the period of settling the United States.* By William Goodman. New York: William H. Colyer. 1843.

The design of this work is to exhibit to the American reader, in a concise form, the manners, customs, and social condition of the people by whom this country was, for the most part, colonized. The author is evidently something of a "bookworm," if we may judge from the great number of quotations and references. It is written in a sententious style, and contains a good deal of curious and interesting matter touching the social condition of England during the period alluded to in the title-page. We have transferred the chapter on "Merchants and Shopkeepers" to the present number of this Magazine, as the most appropriate for our pages, and at the same time as furnishing a fair specimen of the author's peculiar method of treating his subject. The work, on the whole, is little more than a compilation of the "Curiosities of History," interspersed with reflections that are naturally suggested to the mind of the compiler in the progress of his extensive and laborious research.

21.—*Buds, Blossoms, and Fruits of the Church.* By a Candidate for Orders in the Church. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1843.

Designed, as this little volume is, to exhibit the effects resulting from an education on church principles, the author has selected some of the most important ordinances of the church, and epochs of the Christian life, which he has illustrated by a simple narrative, or connected series of interesting tales. He follows the young churchman from his "birth in the church" to his "burial in the church." It is a very pretty book, handsomely printed, neatly bound, and illustrated with a beautiful frontispiece, representing the "rites" of marriage, baptism, confirmation, and the communion, as performed in the church.

22.—*The Young Communicant; an Aid to the Right Understanding and Spiritual Improvement of the Lord's Supper.* Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln. 1844.

The object of this little book is to furnish a full definition and illustration of the various names applied to the ordinance of the Lord's Supper, with its nature, design, &c. It is, without exception, the finest specimen of typographical elegance that has recently fallen under our observation.

23.—*Memoir of the Life, Labors, and Extensive Usefulness of the Rev. Charles Evans, a Distinguished Member of the Baptist Denomination in Wales. Extracted from the Welsh Memoir.* By David Phillips. New York: M. W. Dodd. 1843.

Christmas Evans, the subject of this memoir, is known among theologians as "a preacher of sublime genius, and of lofty powers of imagination." Robert Hall had him in high admiration, and it is said that he was equally eminent for piety and ministerial usefulness. To the Baptists of the United States, it has the recommendation of bringing to their view the character and habits of the numerous and flourishing churches of their denomination in the principality of Wales.

24.—*The History of Valehead.* By Rev. Robert Wilson Evans, M. A. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1844.

This is the first American, from the twelfth London edition; and is equal, in its external appearance, to the English copy. The work is designed to exhibit a faithful portraiture of a Christian family; its members, at home and abroad, and in all the religious and social relations of life. The author is a clergyman of the Episcopal church; and it is, of course, adapted more particularly to the rites and usages of the members of that communion; but its contents are generally of a practical character, and will doubtless be read with pleasure and profit by the good of most Christian sects.

25.—*Judah's Lion.* By Charlotte Elizabeth. New York: M. W. Dodd. 1844.

A religious tale, that will be popular with the numerous admirers of one of the most prolific and successful female writers of our time.

26.—*The Vegetable Kingdom; or, Hand-Book of Plants and Fruits.* By L. D. Chapin. New York: Jerome Lott.

The design of this work is to exhibit the nature and useful qualities of fruits and vegetables, so that any one may become familiar with them, or apply them to use in all the varied purposes of life. The work is divided into two parts; but, so varied are its contents, and so minute the information it embraces concerning the uses of the vegetable products in the common purposes of life—the arts and sciences—in commerce and manufactures—in agriculture—the fine arts—the various purposes of clothing—in medicine—for fuel and food, that we find it entirely out of the question to do justice to it in the brief space allotted to notices in this Magazine.

27.—*The Poetry of Love.* Edited by Rufus W. Griswold. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln. 1844.

This handsome little volume contains about one hundred and fifty pieces, selected from many of the most eminent poets of England and our own country, of "whose productions the most beautiful are generally those which celebrate the passion which made the poets;" for all true poets are lovers. Those who would become acquainted with the inward inspiration, and external garb of the sentiment, under all circumstances and in all moods, will avail themselves of Mr. Griswold's labors.

28.—*Life of James Arminius, D. D.* By Nathan Bangs, D. D. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Dr. Bangs has here brought together, in a volume of two hundred and eighty-eight pages, a comprehensive account of the life and opinions of the celebrated founder of Arminianism. It appears to have been compiled from the voluminous work of Nichols, in two octavo volumes, of more than seven hundred pages each.

29.—*The Flower Garden; or, Chapters on Flowers. A Sequel to Floral Biography.* By Charlotte Elizabeth. New York: M. W. Dodd. 1844.

A neat and cheap edition of a work by a very popular author. Lessons of a moral and religious bearing are here happily inculcated, by the flowers of the field and the garden.

30.—*Protestant Memorial.* By Thomas Hertwell Horne, author of the "Introduction to the Bible." New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

This little volume, from the ninth London edition, comprises a concise historical sketch of the Reformation, a "demonstration" of the religion of the Protestants, an argument for the Protestant church, and an attempt to show that Romanism is contradictory to the Bible.

31.—*Spanish Without a Master; in Four Easy Lessons.* By A. H. Monteith. New York: Wilson & Co., Brother Jonathan Press.

This is an able introduction to the study of this noble language. The plan the author pursues, is to take a short story, and, by extensive praxis on the words it contains, and some others, show the various applications that can be made of them.

32.—*The Rise and Progress of Religion in the Soul, &c.* By Philip Doddridge, D. D. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

This is a very neat edition of this very popular religious treatise; but a notice of its character, in this Magazine, would be as much out of place as a critical review of the Bible.

33.—*The Boston Almanac, for* 1844. By S. N. Dickinson. Boston: Thomas Groom & Co.

This excellent little annual is out; and, as usual, contains a vast amount of matter useful to the merchant, and, in fact, all classes of the community. We consider it the model almanac, in every respect. Mr. Dickinson, the editor and printer, stands at the head of his profession in this country; and, in the way of printing, can do things a little better than any one in his line.

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MARCH, 1844.

Art. I.—SKETCHES OF RUSSIAN COMMERCE.*

THE RUSSIAN EXCHANGE.

The Germans corrupted a word of the Romane family of languages into *Borse*, and the Russians, catching up this germanized Latin word, russified it into *Birsha*. Such is the name which they give to every place where people regularly meet for any purpose whatever, and even to the stands where the iswoschtschiks are accustomed to wait for fares. It is not sufficient therefore in Petersburgh, to call to the driver of the sledge into which you fling yourself to go to 'Change, "W' Birsha!"—to the Exchange. To accomplish your object, you must say, "*W' Gollandskija Birsha!*"—to the Dutch Exchange. For such is the name given by the Russians to the large handsome building where the merchants meet in the Wassili-Ostrow, a name, which probably dates from the earliest infancy of Petersburgh, when the Dutch merchants, specially invited and favored by Peter the Great, were the first who pre-eminently resorted to the Newa, and probably met on the same spot where the representatives of all the commercial nations now assemble.

The Exchange of Petersburgh has a situation so splendid and appropriate as rarely falls to the lot of a handsome edifice. It stands on the extreme point of Wassili-Ostrow, in the centre of all the divisions of the city, whence in winter, sledges, and in summer gondolas, bring from all

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* Russia and the Russians in 1842, by J. G. Kohl, Esq. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. For an article on "Russia and her Commercial Strength," see Merchants' Magazine, vol. 5, 1841, page 297 to 321. Also, an article on "the Trade of Foreigners in Russia," see vol. 6, for 1842, page 161 to 164. "Commercial Guilds of Russia," vol. 6, page 37 to 42, and "Russian Insolvency Laws," see page 419 to 425, vol. 6, 1842. For "Russian Law of Copartnery in Trade," see vol. 6, page 250 to 252. For "Trade of the Russian Empire, embracing progress of Russian Commerce, Imports and Exports in 1838—Navigation Trade with Europe and America, Commercial Ports, Shipment of Exports, &c.," see also Merchants' Magazine for September, 1842, vol. 7, page 205 to 225, &c.

quarters, their freight of merchants to transact business here. The point of the island forms a fine open place in front of the building, placed on a raised foundation; and on each side of the noble granite quays, by which it is protected, the majestic river divides into two large streams which flow on calmly and placidly, without breakers, to the right and left of the point. Several magnificent flights of granite stairs lead from the margin of the shore, for raising and consolidating which, prodigious masses of stone and builders' rubbish were sunk here, down to the river. On the open place before the exchange, stand, at suitable distance, two thick columnæ rostratæ, above 100 feet high, in honor of Mercury, built of blocks of granite, and having ships' heads of cast iron inserted in them. These columns are hollow within, and have iron staircases leading to the top, where are placed gigantic fire-pans, which, on public illuminations, fling their glare far and wide.

The immediate environs, and all the approaches to this edifice, in which business involving the interests of numberless families and of a hundred nations and countries is incessantly transacted, are singularly grand, and perfectly commensurate with the importance of the object. It took twelve years, from 1804 to 1816, to finish the whole of the works, the Place, the quays, the stairs, as well as the building itself, an unheard-of-thing in Petersburgh, where a copy of St. Peter's at Rome was completed in two years, and a new imperial palace rose from its ashes in eleven months.

The plan was furnished, and the whole work executed by Thomon, the architect. An unprejudiced, unprofessional eye might find fault with the disproportionate smallness of the columns running round the building, which is in the ancient Grecian style, and with the breadth and heaviness of the roof. The color given to the exterior, a French gray with white borders, is injudiciously chosen; a pure white would have formed a more pleasing contrast with the azure of the sky, and produced a more beautiful reflection in the waters of the river. Upon a solid, deeply laid substructure of blocks of granite, steps ascend on all sides to the colonnade, and to the entrances at the opposite ends, over which, in the frontispiece, are placed colossal groups of statues.

The party-colored exterior of the exchange, so far from harmonizing with the simplicity of the Grecian style, is further disfigured by a semicircular window of extraordinary size, which has been introduced into the higher facade. This large window is the only one visible from below, and from the border of it issue a great number of narrow, white, longish stripes in a radial form, like the partitions of a fan. The architect probably conceived, that in this window he was giving his building an extraordinary embellishment, but to me it appeared to be a striking deformity. It looks precisely as if the canting wheel of a mill had been walled up in the front. One cannot conceive how any man could think of a circular window in keeping with a style of architecture in which everything else, body, towers, and roof, is sharp and angular, and no part of which exhibits the cupola or arch form, as in the Arabian, Gothic, and Byzantine style.

An Englishman is no doubt astonished to find, even at the entrance of this temple of Mercury, old soldiers acting as sentries, porters, and attendants. It is true, they are highly deserving men, as may be seen by a row, half a yard long, of crosses and medals gained beyond the Caucasus and the Balkan, which decorates their breasts. The inner hall, of colossal proportions, is lighted from above, and has in front and rear, as well as

on both sides, small spaces, separated from it only by arcades. In one of the spaces in front is an altar, with lamps perpetually burning before it, erected for the accommodation of Greek-Russian merchants. In its half modern, half antique appearance, it exactly resembles those merchants themselves, who, before they enter upon business, bow or even kneel before it, and implore the aid of all the saints towards the successful issue of their plans. As they appear in blue or green fashionable surtouts, but at the same time with long beards and national Russian physiognomies, so the altar is composed of a great number of highly polished mahogany pillars, adorned with gilt capitals in the newest taste. A carpet fresh from Paris covers its steps: but it exhibits withal an embrowned antiquated saint, which no one would think of modernizing any more than the merchants would venture to apply the razor to their chins.

THE MERCANTILE CLASS IN PETERSBURGH.

The mercantile world of Petersburgh, which assembles at three every afternoon in the exchange, both for number and for the importance of its transactions, is that which plays a part that gives the decided *ton*, not only in Bordeaux and Copenhagen, but beyond the Atlantic, in Baltimore and Philadelphia, and which, moreover, has respectable and influential representatives at every solid mercantile place in the world—namely, the German. Wassili-Ostrow, where the German merchants have whole rows of handsome residences, and where almost every public house and every shop has a German inscription only, is so German, that it might be considered as a colony of our nation, and specially as one of the latest colonies of the Hanseatic league and its commercial descendants. The first houses in Petersburgh after the English, are the German, and the latter fill nearly the whole of the second rank; they are scions of Bremeners, Hamburgers, Lubeckers, Danzigers, Konigsbergers, and more particularly of mercantile families in Riga, Reval, Narva, and Wiborg, who have settled here and founded their credit by their intelligence and the solidity of their character. The nearest German ports, Reval, Narva, &c., may have contributed most in proportion to these colonies, and their houses form the actual stock of the mercantile class of Petersburgh. There are very old German houses; some have been established above a century, and date from the infancy of the city. The tone of society in these houses is the most agreeable that can be conceived. The German has compromised matters in a very sensible way with the Russian. Without despising him so decidedly as the Englishman, he has adopted many of his good qualities, without, however, divesting himself of his own nationality, retaining his native solidity and polish, which, set off by Russian ease and adroitness of manner and northern hospitality, make so much the stronger an impression. There are, it is true, those who will not highly commend the rising mercantile generation in Petersburgh, and insist that the colony needs new blood from abroad infusing into it.

Next to the Germans come decidedly the English, who form in various respects a more distinct colony than the Germans, many of the latter having become citizens of Petersburgh and Russian subjects, or having always been such, while the former merely belong to the "foreign guests," as they are called, who, in time of peace, enjoy the advantages of denizenship, without its burdens. The English mercantile body call themselves the Petersburgh factory. They have their own chapel, and,

despising all other nations, but most especially their protectors, the Russians, they live shut up by themselves, drive English horses and carriages, go bear-hunting on the Newa, as they do tiger-hunting on the Ganges, disdain to lift the hat to the emperor himself, and, proud of their indispensableness and the invincibility of their fleets, defy everybody, find fault with everything they see, but are highly thought of by the government and by all, because they think highly of themselves, and reside chiefly in the magnificent quay named after them, where, however, many wealthy Russians also have splendid mansions.

Besides these two nations, which are pre-eminently in possession of the maritime commerce of Petersburgh, there are likewise Danes, Swedes, French, Portuguese, Spaniards, and Italians, who have all their representatives and consuls here; and there is certainly no city in Europe, excepting London, in whose trade the nations of this quarter of the globe, without exception, are so interested, as they are in that of Petersburgh.

The national Russian mercantile body form a class totally distinct from the colonies and factories of the foreign merchants engaged in maritime commerce. By means of their widely extended connections in the interior of the country, they undertake only the transport and supply of the native Russian commodities destined for exportation, tallow, corn, timber, leather, and such articles as are furnished by the Asiatic trade. In the distribution of the foreign goods imported into Petersburgh, manufactured or raw materials, fruit, wines, &c., in the interior of the empire, or indeed in Petersburgh itself, they have a very small share, for in all the towns of the interior there exist, for these finer productions of non-Russian industry, French establishments for articles of dress and jewelry, German drug-warehouses, magazines of materials and of cloth, French and German wine-cellars, &c., which are in direct correspondence with the foreign houses in Petersburgh.

Not a single Russian is engaged in maritime traffic, either in Petersburgh or in any other port of the empire; they have neither the requisite knowledge and connections, nor the genuine, intuitive spirit of commercial speculation. The Russian, with his narrow-minded notions, cannot divest himself of his false views of money; and, like all eastern merchants, he is unable to raise himself to an intellectual consideration of the times. With him money is not merely an instrument of trade for the accumulation of value and the increase of credit, but the shining metal appears to him to be the genuine object of all traffic; when it comes into his possession, therefore, he dislikes to part with it again, and never can make up his mind to lose it at the right time, in order to prevent greater loss; somewhat resembling a stupid chess-player or general, who imagines that the more enemies he has killed or taken, the greater advantage he has gained, and knows nothing about the tactics of judiciously conducted retreats, and cleverly repaired losses. The Russian trader wants to make a positive, palpable profit, if it be but a small one, from every transaction; and would assuredly never imitate the American steamboat proprietor, who carried passengers gratuitously for years, and expended thousands, till he had knocked up his competitors, and could reimburse himself for his loan by charging what he pleased.

On the other hand, they enter readily into any speculation which affords a prospect of profit, without taking much pains to ascertain its solidity. Little do they comprehend the meaning of the German, when he

says, "Time gained, all is gained," or the Englishman's adage, "Time is money;" but like the Arabian merchant mentioned by Burkhardt, they let years elapse, in hope of the possibility of avoiding a loss, without calculating how the interest is meanwhile eating up their capital. Nevertheless, there are many—the number of those with whom the wheel breaks on their way to the temple of money is untold—who, in spite of their false system, acquire wealth; and there are in Petersburgh men enough who look like peasants and are as rich as Crœsus; for so brisk is the trade of that capital, and so extensive the demand for Russian goods abroad, that a great deal of money is made by the sale of them.

It is a circumstance not a little remarkable, that these merchants, notwithstanding their fondness for money, never take their losses very deeply to heart; no such thing ever happens as a bankrupt Russian trader putting an end to his life—a catastrophe but too frequent in other countries. This phenomenon, apparently in contradiction with the preceding observations, may be attributed chiefly to the levity of the Russian temperament, and partly to this, that the Russian merchant, in losing his money, does not consider his honor as a trader and his credit as a man at all affected, because for him nothing of the sort exists. "*Bog S'nim*," (God with them!) he says of his lost moneys, and begins "*S'bogom*," (with God) his card-house afresh. There are in Petersburgh not a few Russian merchants, who have more than once saved nothing from the wreck but their red shirt and their kaftan, and yet stroke their long beards again upon 'change as thriving men.

THE ROTHSCHILD OF RUSSIA.

The centre of the whole traffic of the Petersburgh Exchange, the sun around which every thing revolves, the thermometer whose movements are closely watched by all, the source from which universal life and activity is diffused, is a scion of that remarkable race which has for ages produced all the wealthiest men of their time. The Rothschild of Russia is Baron S., without whom scarcely any great undertaking can be set on foot. The amount of the property which he has realized is estimated at from forty to fifty millions. The capital turned by him annually in maritime commerce alone is from thirty to thirty-five millions. He has invested a great deal of money in landed estates in all parts of Russia as far as the Black sea. His shrewd, sparkling eye, his short, stout Napoleon figure, and his old, simple green surtout, are to be seen daily in the middle of the exchange. Near this centre, upon which the strongest light falls direct from the roof, is the great resort of the English, German, and French merchants.

MODE OF DOING BUSINESS IN THE RUSSIAN EXCHANGE.

In the six side-rooms, the sugar-bakers, and the dealers in tallow, corn, and timber, have established themselves, without any formal regulation to that effect; and each class has from habit taken possession of a particular spot. These are composed almost exclusively of Russians, with and without beard, some old men still in kaftans, others in modern French coats. Between them and the lords of the sea in the centre, are the German brokers, with silver marks at the button-hole. Lastly, in the outermost circles, are the *artelschtschiki*, a sort of messengers, for carrying letters or money, and performing other errands, one of whom constantly attends

every Petersburgh merchant; and these are always Russians, who seem to be best qualified for that service.

This assemblage of the merchants of Petersburgh is certainly the largest company of respectable and polished men that is to be seen in Russia, without order or cross of any kind. Besides those silver marks worn by the brokers in their business, as a sign that they have been duly appointed and sworn, and medals of a pound weight hanging about the necks of a few of the Russian merchants, you perceive no distinctions of this sort—nothing but black frocks and simple green surtouts. He who is accustomed to move continually among the richly decorated uniforms of Russian generals and courtiers, or Petersburgh academicians and professors, whose gold-embroidered coats glitter more with extraordinary merits than Orion with alphas and betas, may be struck by the sight of so many persons in one uniform color, and whose behavior is nevertheless decorous and polite; he may think it singular, and his eye may feel offended at the extraordinary scene, but many there are on the other hand, that will dwell upon it with especial gratification.

The assembly, which, for the rest, is by no means gentlemanlike in all its elements, and where a fastidious person might take offence at the intrusion of Polish Jews and the occasional intrusion of Tartars and Bucharians, appears in the highest degree interesting to him who is acquainted with the interior of the country, and is capable of interpreting the echo of two or three words uttered in these halls, nay, often only a few pantomimic gestures, which extend their influence over vast tracts of country. With rapid pencil the broker notes in his book some hundred tons of tallow; a nodding ensues between both parties, and the death of hundreds of beeves grazing in distant steppes is decided. What messages, what letters, what hallooing of herdsmen, what slaughter, what bloodshed, what toiling and moiling, in consequence of that simple memorandum and that silent nod, till the tallow has been transferred from the carcasses of the cattle to the cauldrons of the *ssalganes*,* from the ssalganes to the vessels on the Wolga, Oka, Newa, and from the Newa despatched over the East Sea, the West Sea, and the North Sea, to London; until at length, in Dublin, or Glasgow, or God knows what corner of the earth, late some evening, a master says to his servant, "Charles, light the candle;" and this product of such manifold labors, toils, and exertions, passes off into the general reservoir of all the dissolving elements.

"Gospodin Muller and Co., will you not give me a commission for a few sticks? I think you would be satisfied with my goods," says a long-bearded kaftan to a German surtout, with both hands stuck in the pockets—"Well, let us see, Gospodin Pawlow; note down for me twelve hundred masts, largest size, six thousand spars, and one thousand eight hundred oak-planks, eighteen inches broad and two thick," replies Muller and Co.; and away he goes, without betraying any particular emotion, to give fresh orders. Can Muller and Co. bestow the tenth part of a single thought on the flocks of pigeons and owls which he is driving by this ruthless commission from their maternal nests, and of the host of Hamadryads who will fall through him under the axes of the plotniks of Wologda and Wiatka? Can his cold imagination form the most distant conception of the havoc which his commission will cause in a few days, in those fine

* Tallow-melting establishments in South Russia.

aboriginal forests, where the servants of Nature, the sylphids and the gnomes, have for ages been laboring and creating? What can Muller and Co. know about this! In a year and a half—for so long it takes before the heavy timbers, which the credit of the merchant up-rooted and set afloat, can be felled, work their way through the different systems of rivers in the interior, and appear in the Newa—Muller and Co. receive the "sticks," enter so much on the credit side, so much on the debit, so much as received, desire to be advised when the timber arrives in London, and then care not a brass farthing what flag will be borne by those masts which they have torn against their will from their native forests and launched into a tempestuous life, what quarters of the globe they will circumnavigate, on what rocks they will be dashed, and at the bottom of what sea they will await their slow decomposition.

Large parcels of sugar are wanted. Mr. Karigin wants fifty tons, Mr. Machowsky as much, and Mr. Stanikewitsch is buying all that is offered him, be the quality what it may. The fair of Novgorod is approaching, and the last Charkoff fair has exhausted almost the whole stock on hand. The Karakalpaks have of late taken to drinking sugar in their tea; and in the country of the Kirgises, every child asks for a lump to his *tschai*, and cries if mamma does not give it immediately. The Bucharians, the Orenburgers, and the Tartars have heard this cry, and accounts have reached Petersburgh, that they are on the road for Novgorod in large caravans to take back all the sugar with them. Ha! what showers of stripes now descend on the shoulders of all the poor slaves in the West Indies! "Bestir thee, negro, quick; break up the ground, cut down the canes, drive the oxen, work the press, sharp, sharp, that the sweet juice may flow; stir the cauldron, that it may clarify. Put the hogsheads aboard, and now, Æolus, send thy servants and blow, blow. Be obedient, ye elements, ye stars show the way, for the Bucharians have sent word to Novgorod, the Novgoroders have forwarded the message to Mr. Machowsky, in Petersburgh, Mr. Machowsky has communicated the information to Mr. Stokes, Mr. Stokes has written to Hicks and Son, in London, and Hicks and Son have made it known beyond sea, that the Kirgise boys are crying for sugar, and will not be pacified without it."

The hall of the Petersburgh Exchange is so large, that the bands of all the regiments of the guard might conveniently find their echo in it, but it is built only for whispers. An audible conversation was never held there. Nothing is spoken aloud save mere bagatelles. "How is your good lady?" "Oh, we enjoyed exceedingly, our water-party yesterday; we were at this place and that, at such a one's and such a one's."—"Yes, I admit that A—— gives an excellent dinner, but I find myself more comfortable at B's." You hear nothing else spoken up. But when you see two persons put their heads together, talk in the lowest whispers, and pallisade themselves in a circle with their backs, so that not a mouse could get into it, be sure that there was something in the wind, that a bargain has been made, that the whispering has led to some result.—"Yes, sir"—"No, sir"—"Too much—Three thousand—four—twenty—a hundred thousand"—"October"—"November"—"London"—"Hull"—"Baltimore"—"Well, I will take it." "Done! that is settled then, Mr. Curtius."—"What was this about?" "Mr. Curtius sold 600 lasts of fine Tula wheat, 200 lasts of the best Pleskau linseed, and 300 stone of Livonian flax to Mr. O'Higgins." Those 600 lasts of wheat have been wrung from the toil of as many poor

peasant families. Many a Russian has on their account been driven with the cudgel to the fields; and how many of those little never-tiring horses, whose breed has spread so far northward, have been worked at ploughing and harrowing, and threshing and carrying, until, smarting with innumerable stripes, they have sunk to the ground. In harvest-time, the people were obliged to keep at it night and day, mothers, boys, and girls, while the little infants lay crying in the damp grass, and the sick were left untended in the houses. But what care Messrs. Curtius and O'Higgins for that! Let the rigid landlords settle their account with Heaven, and then let them inquire if there are any hungry creatures in London; they will learn that it always contains more than are to be found in all Russia, and that in this manner, the hard crust at last reaches the lips of the English pauper, who says to himself, "If my lords were not such marble-hearted statues, and the Petersburgh merchant did not screw such a profit out of bread to keep a carriage for his daughters, and to supply his table with the best wines, perhaps I, too, might be able to treat myself with a drop more;" and after all, he has reason to thank the Russian pameschtschik for not suffering his people to be idle, and keeping them closely to their work, which has saved the Englishman at last from famishing.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF COMMERCE.

Besides bread-corn for the English, timber for the Dutch, and tallow for the Scotch, flax and hemp form an important article for the Petersburgh Exchange; though, perhaps, greater quantities of these goods, as well as linseed, may be shipped from Riga, whose Dwina runs through the heart of the flax-producing provinces. The entire system of this branch of trade, with its sworn and exclusively authorized packers, is borrowed from that established in Riga, the customs of which are followed in Petersburgh.

While the city is receiving from abroad the fine German and Dutch linens, which are in such request as to bear a duty of two hundred dollars per hundred-weight, prodigious masses of raw flax and coarse goods, especially cordage of the best quality, are despatched from it to all parts of the globe. Russian cord, shipped in Petersburgh, is found in every petty shop in the meanest country town in Germany. Whatever is to be well tied with us must be tied with Russian cord, so that one may literally assert that half Europe is in Russian bonds. In like manner, almost one-third of all the chains in Europe are forged of Russian iron, which, the produce of the vast possessions of the Demidoffs, the Jakowlews, and other Russian grandees, who have secured whole branches of the Ural range, ranks also as one of the principal commercial articles of the port of the Newa.

RUSSIAN IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The total value of the export of all these raw bulky articles, which are forwarded by the Russian inland trade, partly in large river-craft, partly in light sledges and small quick-travelling telegas, and by which more money is usually made, and more conveniently made, than by the finest productions of art, amounts annually, upon an average, to one hundred and fifty million rubles. In the list of exports, tallow takes decidedly the first place, amounting to about one-third of the whole. Next to tallow come linen, linseed, hemp, and cordage, to the value of about a fifth of the whole; then corn, nearly the same; then iron and copper, forming a

tenth; hides, one-twentieth; timber, not much less; and lastly, potash and oil, constituting considerable fractions.

The value of the foreign goods imported in fifteen hundred to seventeen hundred vessels, half of them English, exceeds that of the native commodities destined for return cargoes by thirty or forty millions. It is in the highly privileged port of Petersburgh alone that this proportion of the imports to the exports prevails; for, in all the other Russian ports, the value of the exports far exceeds that of the imports. No town of Germany carries on so brisk a trade with Petersburgh as that which is seated at the opposite extremity of the Baltic, namely, Lubeck, which alone sends annually from sixty to seventy vessels; that is, as many as the United States, France, or Sweden, three times as many as Hamburg, and ten times as many as Bremen.

At the head of the imports are raw sugar and manufactured cotton goods; both together, amount to half the import. Next to them, come French wines, among which Champagne ranks decidedly first, for in the shade of the Russian eagle more Champagne is drank* than coffee, the amount of which, in the importation list, is surprisingly low. Petersburgh and half the empire which it supplies with coffee, pay no more to foreigners for this article, than between three or four millions—certainly less than the kingdom of Bavaria alone expends upon it. The brother of coffee, tea, which is in possession of the morning as well as evening, seems to be gradually expelling the former, the use of which, in respectable houses, is confined to a single cup after dinner. Foreign tobaccos are imported to the amount of about eight millions; silks, four millions; fruit, two millions; and cheese, one million. Many of these articles may appear inconsiderable in comparison with the circle supplied by Petersburgh, comprehending more than half the empire; but they are really abundant, when it is recollected that they are destined for perhaps a few hundred thousand wealthy persons, nobles, and foreigners, to the exclusion of the innumerable Tschornoi narod.

RUSSIAN DUTIES.

The hundred and sixty millions of imports pay in duties about fifty millions, that is, thirty-three per cent, or one-third of their total value. There is no question that if this duty of one-third were remitted, the activity of trade would be doubled or trebled. The polished man would then live not merely one-third, but twice or three times as cheaply; more millions would be enabled to participate in the comforts of life offered by foreign countries; and the raw productions of Russia would be purchased much more reasonably, and fetched away in much larger quantity than hitherto. As a natural consequence, agriculture, cattle-breeding, and the management of forests would be greatly improved, the population and the income of the private man would increase, the vital powers of the empire would be stirred, and more would everywhere be gained from nature; roads and canals would be constructed, landed property would rise in value, the great estates would split of themselves into smaller, and the emperor's exchequer would be benefited, though at first it might sustain some loss. The unnatural and expensive fabrication of many articles, and most of them, besides, in a very imperfect state, would cease, and the energies of

* About 600,000 bottles per year, which are sold in Russia for nine million rubles.

the people would be more directed to the improvement of those branches of industry which are adapted to their own circumstances and those of the country, and to the production of such things as they never can be supplied with from abroad.

CAPITAL EMPLOYED IN TRADE.

The whole trade of Petersburgh with foreign countries employs yearly a capital of about three hundred millions. One-fourth of this sum, from seventy-five to eighty millions, must be set down to the *innostranntje gosti*, the foreign guests, and the remaining two hundred and twenty millions to the native merchants and subjects of the empire, (Russians, Germans, French, Swedes, &c.) There are several houses in Petersburgh, which turn each of them from ten to twenty millions a year, the latter amounting to about one-third of the whole trade of Riga.* In spite of the heavy duties, commerce is rapidly increasing; it doubled itself in the course of the first third of the present century.†

In ancient times, the trade between the Newa and foreign countries was most cultivated by the Hanseatics; after the foundation of Petersburgh, and during the first half of last century, by the Dutch; and since that time, by the English. The first ship which entered the new port of Petersburgh was Dutch, the same in which Peter the Great acquired in Holland a practical knowledge of seamanship. She was received with extraordinary rejoicings and festivities; and whatever she might bring into the country was exempted from duty for ever. This privilege she enjoyed till the end of last century, when she was obliged to discontinue her trips, because it was found impossible to patch her up any longer so as to be seaworthy. The first ship that arrives in May, like the swallow proclaiming the return of spring, is still received with extraordinary demonstrations of joy, and has various favors granted to her.

RAPID INCREASE OF THE COMMERCE OF PETERSBURGH.

In the first years of its existence, up to 1720, Petersburgh was visited by no more than from twelve to fifty ships; between 1720 and 1730 the number increased from one hundred to two hundred and fifty; during the remainder of the first half of the century, the average number annually was from three to four hundred; in the second half, from seven hundred to nine hundred; and in the present century it is from twelve hundred to two thousand. It is not the ukases alone of Peter the Great, on the one hand, forbidding the transport of goods from the interior to Archangel, and on the other, commanding Archangel merchants to settle in Petersburgh, and merchants in general of the interior, to send one-third of their goods for exportation from the Newa, that have rendered the commerce of the

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* There are in Petersburgh about one hundred and fifty mercantile houses trading beyond sea; of these, there are from twenty to twenty-four English, five French, one Spanish, and nearly one hundred German. The "English," as a merchant once said to me, "do the prettiest, roundest, most solid, and most pleasant business."

† If some travellers assert that it has increased four and five fold, it is because they have followed tables in which the amount of the imports and exports is given in rubles, without recollecting that the ruble has fallen considerably in value since the commencement of this century. The number of ships furnishes a better criterion. At the conclusion of the last century, up to 1800, eight hundred or nine hundred vessels annually entered the port of Petersburgh; now the arrivals are in general nearly two thousand.

city so flourishing. Draw a circle round the governments of Moscow, Twer, Kaluga, Wiatka, Orel, Tula, Jaroslaw, Kostroma, Novgorod, Wladimir, &c., which form the real great Russian heart of the empire, and the seat of that extraordinary, aspiring, popular movement, and you will find that the inner port of the Gulf of Finland, penetrating deeply into this main and central mass of the self-cultivating and rejuvenescent monarchy, offers itself as the nearest and most convenient seaport for importation and exportation, and that Archangel, Reval, and Riga, must, without those ukases, have been gradually forsaken, or at least limited to their own particular district. Those ukases merely imparted rather more celerity and energy to that natural course.

RUSSIAN CUSTOM-HOUSE.

To the west of the exchange, on the bank of the Little Newa, stands the custom-house, or, as the Russians call it, the Tomoshna, on the quay of which all ships drawing not more than nine feet water, can conveniently load and unload, and near which are large warehouses, filled with merchandise of all sorts. Immediately behind the exchange, there is also a spacious place enclosed with iron railing, in which, also, considerable quantities of goods, and some of them rather ticklish, for instance, sugar, are stowed away in the open air the whole year round, in all weathers. You find throughout all Russia, and even in Riga, in the middle of the market-place, such preliminary but often long-continued depots of merchandise as are never met with in other countries. This practice originates, no doubt, in the ordinary coarseness of the Russian articles of trade, timber, hides, tallow, leather, &c., which, upon the whole, are little affected by the weather, and which may easily be protected by a mat or a thick tarpaulin. As it served, of course, to render warehouses less frequent, on the one hand, and tarpaulins were ready provided on the other, the custom of covering goods with them began to be extended to more perishable commodities. You frequently see in that court, lead, copper, iron, sugar, wines, &c., merely set upon rafters, and covered with tarpaulins, lying for months together in snow, rain, and sunshine. You find here lead enough to shoot every rook in the world with a three-pound ball; sugar sufficient to sweeten the Lake of Ladoga; incense and spices enough to embalm the whole empire; woods of the most different sorts, the *elite* of the forests of the West Indies and Brazil.

PARROT AND MONKEY MARKET.

In spring, soon after the opening of the navigation, a peculiar kind of market is held in this place, behind the exchange, which draws all Petersburgh, and affords an extraordinary and impatiently-awaited pleasure to young and old, high and low, and to many a skipper the source of a profit that is not to be despised. Here are then exposed for sale, many of those foreign productions, which the merchants consider as beneath their attention, and in which the captains of the ships and sailors speculate on their own account. Parrots, monkeys, apes, and other rare birds and animals, are intermingled with the magnificent flowers of tropical regions. Sometimes, also, conchylia, and the singular implements and dresses of foreign nations, are offered for sale here; nay, now and then, a captain brings with him a negro boy, if not absolutely to sell him for a slave, at

least to obtain a premium for placing him in the service of some person of distinction. After the dull, silent, and colorless winter, this busy, many-tinted scene, the first gift presented by foreign lands to the northern city, as an earnest of the commencement of new business, is particularly gratifying, and the goods go off rapidly, especially the screeching and grinning classes of them.

CHINESE GOODS IN RUSSIA.

As the consumption of tea, already very considerable, is steadily increasing in Russia, so the number of the Chinese productions which accompany it, is increasing likewise; and the interests of Russia might possibly become so intimately blended with those of China, that ere long a couple of Chinese provinces might travel along with them. The first principal depot for all these things is Irkutzk, the second the market of Novgorod, and the third the chief goal of the whole journey, Petersburgh. The tea-shops of Tschaplin brothers, and other houses, are so elegantly adorned with those productions of Chinese art and industry, as to resemble Pekin boudoirs, and at the same so richly stocked, as scarcely to be surpassed by the first-rate establishments of the celestial empire. Here you may see Chinese stuffs embroidered with silver or gold, which sell for several hundred rubles the ell, and yet go off rapidly. The empress took a fancy to one of these newly-arrived stuffs, and desired to have some ells of it. On learning, however, that the price was two hundred and fifty rubles per ell, she thought it too high, and did not buy the stuff. Next day she changed her mind, and sent to the shop for ten ells; but the whole piece, to the very last remnant, had been meanwhile disposed of to wealthy subjects.

Art. II.—THE ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF THE DANISH SOUND AND BELT-TOLLS.*

THE SOVEREIGNTY OF DENMARK OVER THE ADJACENT SEAS AND SOUNDS, AND THE SOUND AND BELT-TOLLS.

From the remotest period, the kings of Denmark have exercised jurisdiction over the seas that bound, and the sounds and bays that penetrate the Danish territory. There is very ancient evidence, that the authority over both the adjacent seas and the sounds, was, as well as the soil itself, subject to partition among the Danish princes. When a garl was invested with distinct jurisdiction over the Danish islands, (Eidana Garl,) he was specially charged with the duty of guarding the coasts with armed vessels, and the prevention of piracy in the Danish friths and sounds. The sound proper, (Oeresund,) was particularly the subject of such care, because it was the principal entrance to the Baltic, and frequented by numerous shoals of herrings; and foreign vessels repaired thither to participate in the abundant herring-fishery, and at the same time to traffic with the inhabitants of the coast, and also, because freebooters were, by these cir-

* The Origin and History of the Right of Toll upon vessels passing through the Sound and Belts, translated for the Merchants' Magazine, from the Danish of J. F. W. Schlegel, (Danmarks og Hertugdommenes Statsret. Thiobenhavn, 1827, D. I., c. vii., § 27 and 28,) by the Hon. George P. Marsh, Member of Congress from Vermont.

cumstances, attracted to this famous sound. The Icelandic sagas often mention predatory expeditions to the sound, and the danger which the Vikings had to encounter from the Danish armed ships there stationed. Still less did the government of Denmark allow armed fleets to pass these streights, and King Svend Tveskjæg regarded, as a gross invasion of his rights, the passage of the Norwegian king, Olaf Tvyggvason, through the sound, without his license, when the latter visited the Mendish territory, to obtain possession of the dower of Queen Thyra, (A. D. 1000.) The sovereignty over Oeresund was always considered a royal prerogative, and King Saint Canute, in a contest with the people of Scania, on occasion of the imposition of new taxes, reminded them, that he, being lord of the friths and sounds, could deny them access to the herring-fishery in the sound. This they did not venture to dispute, whence we may infer that this important prerogative was recognized as already established by prescriptive right, as early as the close of the eleventh century.

That this prerogative was held to extend to all friths and sounds is proved by our ancient laws. Thus, the old public law of Sleswick, (Art. 68 of the ancient text,) declares, that Sliefiord, appertains to the king, (*flumen regis est,*) and ascribes to him, for this reason, various prerogatives over it. The king has also, from the earliest period, exercised the like rights over Limfiord, although our written laws do not take notice of them, until a more recent age. The code of Zealand, ascribed to King Errick, declares that the king has sovereignty over Roeskilde Fiord, and other similar waters.

The king's extensive prerogative of wreck is founded upon this sovereignty, and, therefore, when the franchise of the *Strand* was granted to bishops, monasteries, or noblemen, the prerogative of strict *wreck* was reserved to the crown. For the same reason, the piscaries in friths, sounds, and the sea, were considered as a branch of the prerogative, and although the smaller piscaries were surrendered to the people in general, or the adjacent landed proprietors in severalty, yet the larger fish, such as the sturgeon, grampus, and whale, are declared in all our law-books to appertain to the king.

Our kings have always attached particular value to the sovereignty over the sound, (Egrar Sund,) and next, to that over the Great and Little Belts, (Beltis Sund and Middelfart Sund,) both because the former, as well as the two latter, served to bind together the islands and mainland of Denmark, and because they opened a passage to the Baltic, and these three sounds, so important to the realm, are, according to some, indicated by the three lions in the royal arms of Denmark.

At the commencement of the thirteenth century, when the herring-fishery on the coast of Scania, and the navigation of the Baltic had greatly increased, Valdemar Seier took measures for the security of the passage through the sound, by the erection of a light-house at Falsterboe. This was done in the year 1202, at the request of the people of Lubeck, and probably furnished a new inducement to require the payment of toll, by navigators, at the entrance of the sound, though the toll itself was of earlier origin, and has never been paid under the name of light-money. The oldest written date of the payment of this toll, which we are at present able to produce, is an exemption from the payment of toll, on passing the belt, granted by King Christopher the Second, to the monastery of Soröe, in the year 1328; but, inasmuch as it may be considered a settled point that

the sound-toll is much older than the belt-toll, we may hence infer the great antiquity of the former.

During the short time that Lubeck and the other Hanse Towns, in the war with King Valdemar, had obtained the command of the sound, they collected the toll as long as they were in possession. When King Albert, in the war with King Valdemar Atterdag, in the year 1368, had, for a time, the control of Scania, he conferred various privileges upon the Hanse Towns. In these it was provided, among other things, that when a vessel passed the sound with a cargo of herring, the fish should be free of toll, but the ship should pay eleven skilling grot. King Albert, who was then not even complete master of one side of the sound, would certainly not have dared to insist upon this stipulation, unless the sound-toll had then been generally collected by the kings of Denmark, as lords of the soil on both sides of the sound, especially when he was under the necessity of propitiating his allies, the Hanse Towns, as much as possible. King Erick, of Pomerania, unquestionably took efficient measures for enforcing the punctual payment of the sound-toll, especially as he, by the grant of new privileges, endeavored to build up again the commercial town of Elsineur, (A. D. 1425.) The ancient fortresses of Flynderborg and Krogen, in the vicinity of Elsineur, then served, as they had long done, for the defence of that unfortified city, and the collection of the sound-toll. It is probable that the toll was raised during the reign of this king, as the continual wars in which he was involved must have created a necessity for money that would be most readily supplied by this means. That a similar increase took place in the reign of his successor, King Christopher, of Bavaria, is certain, because complaints were made on the subject at a congress of the Hanse Towns in 1447.

Upon the 6th of August, A. D. 1490, in the reign of King John, an important commercial treaty was concluded with Henry VII., of England, whereby it was stipulated, that English ships visiting the Baltic should be required to pass through Oeresund, except when compelled by stress of weather to pass the belt, in which case they were compelled to pay toll at Nyeborg. The same king negotiated a treaty with Lubeck, in 1506, securing to that city its ancient privileges, and accordingly providing that its citizens should not be compelled to pay higher tolls than they had formerly done. This treaty was confirmed the next year, (7th July, 1507.)

From the reign of King Christian II., we have many documents concerning the toll. This king transferred the place of paying the toll from Elsineur to Copenhagen, in order to favor the capital, at the expense of the former city, which had offended him, and he nominated the famous Sigbret inspectress-general of the toll department; but as the change of the place of payment gave occasion to much complaint, especially on the part of Lubeck, the office was after some time restored to the former place. The value of the sound-toll, during the reign of this king, may be inferred from Admiral Severin Norbye's remark to Charles V., that Denmark's gold mine was at Elsineur.

The favorable terms of passage allowed to the Dutch, which had excited the jealousy of the Hanse Towns, and the refusal of the council of state, after the death of King Frederick I., to exclude the Dutch from participating in the trade of the Baltic, were the principal cause of the exertions of Lubeck to restore King Christian II. to the throne, after the so called Counts' war.

The treaty between Charles V., as king of the Netherlands, and King Christian III., dated at Speyer, 23d May, 1544, was principally designed to secure the Dutch navigators against the denial of passage through the Danish waters, and the seizure of ship or cargo. With respect to the toll, it merely stipulates that it shall be paid, as it had been from ancient times. It is the more unreasonable to insist, as has been pretended, that this was the first treaty containing stipulations in regard to the sound-toll, because the Oeresund toll is not even named in the treaty, in express words; and, moreover, as we have already shown, several earlier treaties are extant, in which this toll is expressly mentioned by name. It is, in the meantime, certain, that the Netherlanders considered the king pledged by this treaty not to increase the rate of toll to be paid by them, and, therefore, they always appealed to it in later negotiations, until the treaty of Christianople, in 1645. King Christian III., however, did not interpret this treaty so literally; for three years afterwards, (in 1548,) when the Dutch complained of the raising of the toll, he did not dispute the fact, but insisted upon his right to exercise the same authority, that other princes assumed in a much higher degree.

In the reign of King Frederick II., immediately after that monarch's accession, on the 25th of July, 1560, an important treaty was concluded with the six so called Wendish towns, Lubeck, Hamburg, Rostock, Stralsund, Wismar, and Lunenburg, whereby a more favorable rate of toll on ship and cargo was granted to these cities, than was imposed on the other Hanse Towns. By this treaty, they were allowed to pass with their ships through the belt, which had formerly been denied to them, at the same rates of toll. This treaty, which enters more into detail than any of the older ones relating to the sound-toll, has continued to regulate the toll for those cities quite down to our own times.

As King Frederick II. found, in the course of the war with Sweden, that the fortress of Krogen, at Elsineur, was not sufficiently strong to enforce the collection of the sound-toll during a naval war, he commenced, four years after the peace of Stettin, the construction of the castle and fortress of Kronborg, the erection of which occupied nine years, and the old fort was now demolished. The great expenditure required, first by the war with Sweden, and then by the building of this fortress, gave occasion for increasing the rate of toll, which produced some complaint from the Hanse Towns, as well as England and Holland; and as Lubeck, in 1582, appealed to the emperor and the Diet at Augsburg, the king was so highly incensed, that, in 1583, he again raised the toll for that city, by way of retaliation, and it was not reduced until 1590.

During the minority of Christian IV., new complaints were laid before the Danish council of state, concerning this increase; but, although the additional toll levied upon Lubeck ships by way of penalty was remitted, the general tariff of toll remained unchanged, because the council of state would not take upon themselves to make any alterations, as the sound-toll was a matter of prerogative, and the revenue from that source belonged exclusively to the royal exchequer.

When Christian IV. assumed the reins of government, he could not be induced to consent to any reduction. On the contrary, the expenses of the Calmar war compelled him again to raise the rates of sound-toll. This, both Lubeck and the Dutch resented; and after the former had in vain appealed to the Emperor Matthias, they formed an alliance on the

29th of May, 1613, which was principally designed to act against Denmark, though this object is not particularly mentioned in the treaty, and contributed to the speedy conclusion of the peace of Calmar.

The king afterwards, in 1620, reduced the toll; but his participation in the thirty years' war, and the necessity of keeping armed after the peace of Lubeck, obliged him to raise the toll again. This took place after the year 1638.

This increase, and the strict search to which vessels were submitted, in order to prevent the evasion of toll, induced the Dutch to take part with the Swedes in the war which broke out in 1643, and the unfortunate reverses sustained in this war led the king to regulate the sound-toll in a manner highly favorable to the Dutch, by the treaty of Christianople, 13th August, 1645, and the tariff of tolls thereby established has not only remained the standard for the Netherlands, but has since been extended to the other privileged commercial nations. By the so called Redemption-treaty with Holland, of the 9th October, 1649, which the royal chamberlain, Corfitz Ulfeld, concluded at the Hague, the Dutch were exempted for thirty-six years from the imposition of toll, in consideration of an annual payment of 350,000 Dutch guilders; but as this treaty created discontent in Holland, and was equally unsatisfactory on the Danish side, it was rescinded by a later convention of the 26th September, 1653. The treaty of Christianople, which was thus revived, was in the main confirmed, but enlarged by various stipulations in the treaty with the states general of 15th June, 1701, limited to a period of forty years. In 1725, negotiations for a new commercial convention were opened, and resumed in 1732, but no treaty was concluded, and that of 1701 is therefore still in force.

By the peace of Stettin, in 1570, the naked right of free passage through the sound had been conceded to the Swedes. By the peace of Knæröd, in 1613, it was further stipulated, that merchandise transported by them through the sound should be free of toll, with the exception of liquors, but it appears that the bottoms paid toll; and, with respect to the then newly founded city of Gottenburg, which had been destroyed in the course of the war, and the trade of which King Christian IV. considered as an invasion of his right of toll, it was provided, that when it was rebuilt, its privileges should not conflict with this prerogative of the Danish king.

By the peace of Bromsebro, 13th August, 1645, a full exemption from toll, on both ship and cargo, on passing the sound or belts, was first granted to the Swedes, and they were also privileged from search. In consequence of this, according to Magnus Durell, the revenue from the sound-toll fell, after this treaty, from 500,000 or 600,000 rigsbanksdalers, to 70,000 or 80,000. By the peace of Roeskild, in 1658, Denmark had been compelled to surrender Scania, Holland, and Bleking, and the cession of these provinces was confirmed by the peace of Copenhagen of the 27th of May and 6th June, 1660; but in the last mentioned treaty, it was provided, that the surrender should not be so construed as to confer upon Sweden any right to share in the proceeds of the sound-toll, though it allowed to the Swedish crown a stipulated remuneration, for maintaining the lights which had been established on the coasts of Scania. As the absolute exemption from toll, for all Swedish subjects, including those of the newly acquired provinces, was again recognized, the revenue from the toll continued much depressed, especially as other nations, and

particularly the Dutch, endeavored, by aid of a Swedish flag and papers, to enjoy a fraudulent participation in the same exemption. This was, however, put an end to by the peace of Frederiksborg, of 3d July, 1720, whereby the Swedes were obliged to pay the same toll as the most favored nations on passing the sound or belts, in consideration of which, the Danes restored all their late conquests. This treaty was confirmed, both by the treaty of Jönkiöfring, 10th December, 1809, and by that of Kiel, 14th January, 1814.

On the 5th (15th) November, 1645, and consequently immediately after the treaty of Christianople with Holland, and that of Bromsebro with Sweden, a convention was concluded with France, by which the French were allowed the like privileges as the Dutch, in regard to the payment of toll. By a later commercial treaty, of 14th (24th) February, 1663, it was expressly stipulated, that toll should be paid according to the tariff of 27th September, 1645. At the present time, the treaty of 23d August, 1742, which confirms the former convention in this particular, is in force, as the rule of payment for France.

The Wendish maritime towns remained in the enjoyment of the special privileges conceded to them by the Odensee convention, of 25th July, 1560. The treaty of the 30th June, 1762, and that of Gottorp, 27th May, 1768, conferred upon Hamburg the same privileges, in respect to the sound-toll, as were enjoyed by the most favored nations.

By the treaty of 15th (25th) September, 1654, concluded with the Protector Cromwell, on occasion of some recent disputes, and regulating more minutely the navigation of the sound, it was provided, that the English should pay the same tolls as were exacted of the Dutch, and this was confirmed by the treaty of 13th (23d) February, 1661. After the restoration of Charles II., some difficulties arose, concerning the regulation of the toll, in the course of the negotiations with the English government at Breda, in 1667, which were finally settled by the commercial convention of the 11th July, 1670, whereby it was again stipulated, that the English should pay toll according to the same tariff as the Dutch. This convention is still the standard, and is recognized by the treaty with Great Britain, dated at Kiel, 14th January, 1814.

The first commercial treaty with Russia, (which did not acquire any territory bordering on the Baltic until the last century,) was concluded on the 8th (19th) October, 1782. It makes the necessary regulations in respect to the sound-toll, and is still in force.

As the active trade of Spain with the Baltic, after the loss of the Netherlands, was inconsiderable, that kingdom did not negotiate for admission to the class of favored nations until a late period. The commercial convention of 1st July, 1742, between the two powers, does not appear to have been ratified; and it was therefore first established, in 1792, that these privileges should be allowed to Spanish ships.

With Portugal, a commercial treaty was concluded at Lisbon, 26th September, 1766, which confers upon Portuguese ships the privileges of favored nations.

The same rules appear to prevail with regard to Naples and Sicily, according to the treaty of 16th April, 1748.

Although Prussia possesses a very considerable territory bordering on the Baltic, and towns which carry on an important trade, yet that kingdom had no commercial treaty with Denmark before 1818. Only

the Wendish towns, which had become subject to Prussia, and those which the Swedes had occupied in the thirty years' war, and which had been transferred to Prussia, enjoyed special privileges in regard to the passage of the sound and belts, by virtue of the convention of Odensee, of the 25th July, 1563, which the treaty of Bromsebro, of 1645, confirmed anew to those cities. But by the commercial treaty of 17th June, 1818, all Prussian ships were allowed to share the same privileges, on passing the sound, belts, or the Sleswick-Holstein canal, as had been, or should be granted to the most favored nations, or the native subjects of Denmark, in consideration of the like privileges for Danish ships in the harbors of Prussia.

And in fine, by the commercial convention of 1826, the United States of America acquired the same privileges as the other nations already mentioned.

The sound-toll has thus been regulated with the most considerable commercial states, and thereby all complaints of arbitrary exaction prevented.

THE GROUND OF THE RIGHT OF TOLL.

Both foreign and domestic authors, who have attempted to assign the grounds of the right of sound-toll, appear to have been equally unfortunate in the reasons adduced, and thereby to have given a show of plausibility to the assumption of evil-disposed writers, that the exaction of this toll was a mere usurpation. They have sometimes insisted, that the toll ought to be regarded as an equivalent for the expenses of constructing and maintaining lights; sometimes, as a remuneration for the duty which the Danish government has assumed, of protecting navigators in these waters; and sometimes, that it was barely a concession secured to Denmark by treaty. Those who allege it to be a usurpation, maintain that it grew out of the former abundant herring fishery on the coast of Scania, and was perpetuated, as a mere abuse, after the fishery ceased. This last opinion, which has found supporters even in Denmark, is sufficiently refuted by the observation, that a distinction has at all times been made between the duty paid on the herring fishery, and the merchandise transported to or from the trading towns of Scania, (which was always collected on the Scanian side of the sound,) and the proper transit toll, which has uniformly been paid on the Zealand side. Nor is it supposable that foreigners would have continued to pay the toll, after its known grounds had ceased to exist.

The former theories will be found equally fallacious. It is, in the first place, in the highest degree probable, that the sound-toll was exacted of navigators long before the establishment of lights was even thought of; and, secondly, the most ancient light is that of Falsterboe, in Scania, while the toll has, nevertheless, invariably been demanded at the present place of collection on the Zealand side; and, in fine, a distinction has constantly been made here, as well as elsewhere, between light-money and toll. The English demand heavy light-money, for the lights maintained upon their coast for the benefit of navigators, but this has never been exacted or paid under the name of toll.

It is indeed true, that the kings of Denmark have always carefully protected the navigation through the sound, but they have never connected the imposition of toll with this duty, which they have voluntarily assumed,

nor have foreign powers ever made such protection a condition of the payment of toll.

The duty of paying the toll is much more ancient than the oldest treaty which recognizes it. There is not one of these which concedes it to the Danish crown as a *new* privilege, or supposes it to have ever been of doubtful obligation; but they all merely settle the manner in which the toll should be paid thereafter, and recognize the *limitation* of the amount, as a special privilege to the foreign contracting power. How absurd, then, to make that the foundation of this right, which was, in fact, but a consequence of the exercise of the right. Moreover, the subjects of those powers, which have negotiated no treaty with Denmark in regard to the toll, instead of being exempt from its payment, (as they should be, according to the doctrine we are considering,) have, on the contrary, always been obliged to pay a higher rate of toll, and have been subjected to greater inconveniences in the manner of payment, than the navigators of other nations; as, for example, was the case with Prussia until 1818.

The real main foundation of the right of toll is the sovereignty over Oeresund, which the kings of Denmark have immemorially exercised. The sound, in the narrowest part, is scarcely three miles wide. At the time of the establishment of this sovereignty, and down to 1658, Scania was under the dominion of Denmark, which, of course, commanded the passage on both sides. The dangerous navigation on the Scanian side, and the course of the current, have always obliged ships to keep close to the Zealand coast, and the channel is therefore more effectually commanded from that side. In the meantime, the Danish crown took care, on occasion of the cession of Scania to Sweden, to have a special provision inserted in the treaty, to the effect, that the exclusive right to the sound-toll should be reserved to Denmark,* and that the Swedes should be bound to maintain lights on the coast of Scania, in consideration of a yearly allowance of three thousand five hundred rigsbanksdalers, old currency. That the sovereignty over Oeresund was not a special and peculiar claim of the Danish crown, but that it extended alike over all bays and sounds which divide or penetrate the Danish territory, we have already shown. No other European sound is of similar configuration and character to this, except that between Naples and Sicily, and the two straits of Constantinople;† but as to the former, the want of a naval force is undoubtedly the principal cause which has prevented the Neapolitan government from enforcing its rights; and in respect to the latter, the Sublime Porte has long exercised a much greater jurisdiction over them, that, namely, of entirely inhibiting passage to and from the Black Sea.‡ But as the naval power of Denmark is the most ancient, and was long the most considerable, the government was able to enforce this right against navigators, whether it chose to forbid them passage altogether, or

* Ita tamen, ut S. K. Maj. regnumque Sveciæ nec inde nec quacunque alia de causa aut quocunque prætexta ullum jus, vectigal aut tributum aliquod in Oresundico freto imperandi aut exigendi prætendat.

† The English channel and the straits of Gibraltar are too wide to admit of the enforcement of such a right; besides, the territory on the opposite coasts has generally been subject to different jurisdictions.

‡ A narrow channel like Oeresund may be compared to a wide river; and for the navigation of such, the sovereign power has always been considered entitled to demand toll.

to allow it upon reasonable terms, such as the payment of toll, or the like. The toll, then, ought to be considered as a remnant of the sovereignty which the Danish crown anciently exercised to a far greater extent over the waters adjacent to Denmark, as will be more fully illustrated in the sequel. The kings of Denmark have therefore always held themselves authorized to raise or reduce the toll according to circumstances. When foreign powers have complained of the increase of the rates of toll, the answer has uniformly been, at least until the treaty of Christianople, in 1645, that the king's sovereignty over Oeresund did not admit foreigners to set any limits to the exercise of this prerogative, and this answer has usually been acquiesced in, as conclusive. As the right to the sound-toll has been universally recognized, it was considered an evasion of the right, when foreign navigators took the route of the Great or Little belt. This was expressly forbidden to Amsterdam, in 1453, by King Christian I., and to the English by the treaty of 1490, between King John and that nation, except in case of stress of weather, when toll was to be paid at Nyborg. These passages were also forbidden to the Hanse Towns for a long period, and they were first permitted to take that route by the convention of Odensee in 1560, upon condition of paying the same toll as on passing the sound.

This universal recognition of the right of absolute sovereignty sometimes misled the Danish government to the unfounded assumption, that the taking of any route to the Russian ports, except by way of the Danish sounds, as, for example, that around Norwegian Lapland to Archangel, was an invasion of the Danish royal prerogative of toll, and disputes arose on this point, with England, both in the reign of King Frederick II. and that of King Christian IV. The seextravagant pretensions serve, at least, to show the extent and comprehensive nature of the Danish right of sovereignty at that time.

It is from this almost unlimited right of sovereignty over Oeresund, that we can most readily explain the recognition, by foreign maritime powers, of the like right in the case of the other sounds; for, considered by itself, as a separate and independent claim, it would be liable to great objections, on account of the greater width of the belts, especially the great belt, in comparison with Oeresund. But when the duty of paying toll on passing the sound was once generally admitted, it would naturally be considered an evasion of the duty, to take the circuitous route through the Belts, nor would this evasion be tolerated with impunity, because here, too, the waters were bounded by Danish territory, and Danish fortresses and ships of war obliged navigators to pay the toll, which ought to have been paid at Oerakrog or Elsineur. It was from this view of the subject that foreign powers were required to bind themselves by treaty to abstain from passing the belts, except when compelled by stress of weather, and that this liberty was conceded to them, at a later period, only as a special favor. It ought to be here observed, that at that period, the maritime jurisdiction of a state was not confined within as narrow limits as afterwards; but maritime nations extended their authority, without contradiction, so far as they had the power to enforce it.

The other principal foundation of the right of toll, is immemorial enjoyment; for, though possession for a known and arbitrarily fixed period is not considered as a valid mode of acquiring title, as between states, yet immemorial enjoyment (præscriptio immemorialis) ought to be recognized

as such; for this rests upon an entirely different principle from possessory right, and can as little be discarded in the law of nations as in the municipal law, without producing inevitable embarrassment and confusion in the relations of every state with foreign powers. From our historical view of the sound-toll, it is perceived that the Danish crown has been in the demonstrable enjoyment of this right for more than five hundred years; that even at that remote period, it was treated not as a novel, but as an ancient prerogative; that it has been ever since constantly exercised, without the interposition of doubt or question touching its legality, by foreign powers; and, therefore, that there is a conclusive and irresistible presumption in favor of its lawful origin and validity.

Although the obligation assumed by the Danish crown of protecting navigators from insult, the construction and maintenance of excellent lights, from the Skaw (and before the cession of Norway, from Lindesnæs) to Bornholm and Christiansöe, which have lately not only been increased in number, but essentially improved in construction and efficiency, and the ameliorated organization of the system of pilotage, ought not to be considered as the true foundation of the prerogative of the sound-toll, yet it is certain, that the performance of these services by Denmark has contributed to increase the readiness of foreign powers to pay the toll, and even in so critical a period as the year 1814, to satisfy them that it was for their common interest to leave Denmark in the undisturbed enjoyment of this ancient right, which she has exercised in a way so beneficial to the whole commercial world.

So the treaties concerning the sound-toll, though not the ground on which the right is founded, may be appealed to, as so many proofs, that the greatest maritime powers have recognized its validity for many centuries, and have only endeavored to secure a certain degree of moderation in its exercise.

THE RULES ACCORDING TO WHICH TOLL WAS ANCIENTLY EXACTED, AND IS NOW IMPOSED.

Although it is known, that at a very remote period, toll was paid on both ship and cargo on passing Oeresund, yet positive data are wanting as to the rule by which it was estimated. The pecuniary toll, still demanded from nations not privileged, was, as appears by authentic documents, anciently exacted, and was fixed at a rosenoble for the ship on the passage out, and the like sum on the passage home, but at two rosenobles if the ship was laden. Besides this, the most favored nations were required to pay an additional toll on certain merchandise, such as wine and salt. In the reign of King Christopher, in the year 1447, the cities of Campen, Zütphen, and Zwoll, complained of the toll upon the bottom and upon wine, as an invasion of their privileges. In 1476, complaints on account of the increase of the sound-toll were presented, at a diet of the Hanse Towns, by the six Wendish cities, which had formerly paid only a noble upon the ship, but were now required to pay a toll on salt, as other navigators did, and this they ascribed to the machinations of the Dutch. These complaints led to no result. From the receipts given in the time of Christian II. to the collector at Elsineur, we learn that the toll was paid partly in coin, (nobles, Rhenish guilders, and Danish money,) and partly in kind, (as Rhenish wine, baysalt, &c.) The oldest tariff of tolls yet discovered is from the reign of Christian III., in 1558.

From this we learn, that the ships of the Wendish towns were greatly favored, and even that the bottoms were toll free, when furnished with proper papers to show their nationality, and that no foreigner had any interest in them, but in case of failure of legal evidence of nationality, they paid one rosenoble; if they had goods of foreigners on board, two rosenobles, even though the ownership of the vessel was proved; and if the nationality of neither ship nor cargo was duly shown, three rosenobles. On Rhenish or other wines, they paid the thirtieth cask, or thirtieth penny, and the king might elect to receive the toll in kind, or in money; if laden with salt, they paid six barrels of that article, and were allowed a deduction of one gold guilder from the toll on the residue of the cargo. The Dutch and the western Hanse Towns, on the other hand, paid in all cases one rosenoble, when the ship was under one hundred lasts (two hundred tons) burden, and in ballast, but two rosenobles, if of greater tonnage. Upon a ship with cargo of thirty lasts, they paid one rosenoble and one golden guilder; from thirty to one hundred lasts, two rosenobles; and if over one hundred lasts, three rosenobles. On wine and salt, a specific toll was exacted, according to the same rule as in the case of Wendish ships. The same tariff was followed with the other Hanse Towns. Ships coming from France, England, Russia, or Portugal, were required to pay toll on various other specified articles, and, moreover, it was established as a general rule, that they must pay the hundredth penny, or one per cent, of the value of the cargo.*

That both King Christian III., and his successors, Frederick II. and Christian IV., considered themselves authorized to increase the rates of toll at pleasure, either for navigators in general, the vessels of particular countries or towns, or upon particular species of merchandise, we have already noticed. This gave occasion to many discussions, and to conventions, whereby some nations were favored beyond others. The Wendish towns, the Dutch, and the English, belonged to the class of favored powers, at an early period. In the reign of Christian IV., the tariff of toll was repeatedly changed, partly because the sound-toll furnished him the resources which the nobility denied him, and partly for political reasons. The Dutch complained particularly of the high toll imposed on saltpetre, the later increase of the toll on bottoms and merchandise, and the new tonnage toll first introduced after the tariff of 1629. The convention concluded with the Dutch, in 1641, occasioned the adoption of a more moderate tariff, which was promulgated the same year.

Upon the conclusion of the peace of Christianople, in 1645, a new tariff of tolls was adopted, which has since been the fixed standard of payment, not only for the Dutch, but for all other favored nations.

From an early period, the Dutch, (and at present all the Netherlanders,) the English, the Swedes, (since the cessation of their exemption from toll, in 1720,) and the French, and more recently, the Spaniards, Portuguese, Russians, Prussians, (by the treaty of 17th June, 1818,) and North Americans, (by the treaty of 26th April, 1826,) have belonged to the class of privileged nations. The Norwegians were considered as unprivileged, after the conclusion of the peace of Kiel, 14th January, 1814, until a commercial treaty was negotiated with Sweden and Nor-

* The toll archives, including the older tariffs, are believed to have been destroyed, when the Swedes took Kronborg castle, in 1658.

way, on the 2d November, 1826, since which, although the treaty does not mention the sound-toll, our government has ordered the toll office at Elsineur, to put the Norwegians on the footing of the most favored nations. It is remarkable, that Danish ships were first declared to be privileged, by the royal ordinance of 18th February, 1771. Of these, vessels licensed for the domestic trade, and those of the Asiatic company, are absolutely toll free. The only European ships now treated as unprivileged, are those of Lubeck, Bremen, Rostock, (which pay certain additional specific tolls,) and Oldenburg.

Privileged ships pay the toll established by the tariff of 1645, so far as that is now applicable; but in special cases, according to particular stipulations, (as in the case of Russia, by the treaty of 8th (19th) October, 1782,) and upon new kinds of merchandise not specified in the tariff, a customary toll of one per cent on the value of the goods at the place of exportation.

Unprivileged vessels, at present, pay toll according to the same tariff; but upon goods, of kinds not specified in the tariff, (the number of which, since the establishment of so many new branches of manufacture, is great; while, on the other hand, many articles named in the tariff, no longer occur in commerce,) one and a quarter per cent, and consequently one fourth of one per cent more than privileged ships. Besides this, they pay the specific toll of one rosenoble, or its equivalent four and a half dollars, upon the ship, and the additional tax of one half dollar, from which privileged ships are exempt.

Privileged ships have also the following important advantages over the unprivileged: 1. They have a credit of three months [illegible] in furnishing security; 2. they may omit settling the toll until [illegible] age, provided rough or tempestuous weather renders it unsafe to put [illegible] Elsineur; 3. they are exempt from search of ship and cargo, and the certificates and ship's papers, if regular, are received as full proof, but with this limitation, that if fraud be discovered, the proper authorities shall take suitable measures for its future prevention; and, in fine, 4. they are allowed special advantages in the despatch of the estimation and payment of the toll.

From the toll, we must distinguish the light money, which is four dollars for a loaded ship of six lasts or over, and two, for a ship of that tonnage in ballast, or a smaller vessel with cargo. But the Dutch and several other powers have agreed, that when new lights or beacons shall be established for the benefit of navigators, they will contribute, according to a stipulated rate. We have already observed, that the Swedish government receives annually 3,500 rigsbanksdalers, out of the light money, in consideration of maintaining the lights on the coast of Scania, and at Falsterboo.

To these charges are to be added the clerk's fees to the officers of the toll-office, namely, one half dollar to the director, one dollar to the four chancellors, which fees entitle the captain to a specification of the items of toll, and one half dollar to the custodia of the seal and the treasurer; ships liable to visitation pay also to the inspector one dollar. The translator receives no regular fee, unless his services are required for translating the ships papers into the language of the country.

Besides these, is the pauper money, which is both *ordinary*, being twelve skillings per last, (from which Danish ships under five, and Swe-

dish under fifteen lasts, are exempt,) and *extraordinary*, being one rigsbanksdaler for each ship, (thirty-two skillings for Danish ships under eleven, and Swedish under fifteen lasts.) These are paid when a toll-clearance is demanded on Sunday, on holidays, or out of office-hours on week days, or for speedy dispatch, and in some other cases, where an exemption from the usual formalities is allowed.

By way of inducement to captains to furnish correct declarations, it has been an immemorial custom to grant them a gratuity of four per cent on the gross amount of the toll, which is paid out of the toll-exchequer, under the name of föringspenge, (cargo-money.) This payment is sanctioned by the ordinance annexed to the treaty of the 15th June, 1701. [Certain regulations, concerning the currency in which the toll should be paid, for the most part now obsolete, are here omitted.]

For the purpose of enforcing the due payment of the toll, a guard-ship is stationed in the waters of the sound, during the season of navigation, and receives a fee of four skillings from every ship passing the sound, in either direction. When a vessel attempts to evade the payment of toll, and is forced to bring to, by firing a gun, the captain is obliged to pay five rigsbankdalers, as powder-money, to the toll-office at Elsineur.

Although the rates of toll have been considerably reduced below their ancient standard, and further, by the admission of most commercial nations to the privileged class, and the change in the mode of payment, yet the revenue from this source is nearly as great as before, because, both the number of ships passing the sound, and the value of their cargoes, have largely increased. In the reign of Frederick IV., the greatest (annual) number of ships passing Oeresund, was 3,435. In 1750, it had increased to 5,000. In 1770, it amounted to 7,736. From 1777 to 1790, the smallest number (in 1789) was 8,272, and the greatest, 11,233. In 1792, it rose to 12,114. In the succeeding years of warfare, it was very variable, and it was only in 1796, that it again amounted to the last mentioned number. Since the peace of Paris, the Baltic trade has again increased, and the annual number of passages has been from 10,000 to to 13,000. In 1817, the number of vessels was 13,170, and in 1824, 13,000.* The greater number of these vessels are English, (from 2,000 to 3,000,) then Prussian, (over 1,300,) and next, Swedish and Danish. Through the seventeenth, and down to the middle of the eighteenth century, the Dutch ships were the most numerous. The revenue from the toll could not, even in the best years of the reign of Christian IV., be estimated at above 300,000 specie dollars, and after the peace of Bromsebro it fell to 70,000 or 80,000 rigsbanksdalers. It continued at about this sum, until the close of the seventeenth century, except that during the war with Sweden, while the Swedish exemption from toll was of course suspended, it rose to 150,000 rigsbanksdalers. After the peace

* According to Nathanson, Danmarks National og Stats, Hunsholdning, Copenhagen, 1836, the number of vessels passing the sound, from 1825 to 1835, was as follows:—

1825,	13,146	1831,	12,946
1826,	11,065	1832,	12,202
1827,	12,959	1833,	10,985
1828,	13,278	1834,	10,605
1829,	13,488	1835,	10,255
1830,	13,212		

The proportion of Danish vessels is small, varying from five to eight per cent.—*Trans.*

of Fredericksborg, in 1720, and the extension of the English trade with the Baltic, the sound-toll considerably increased. It then rose to 300,000 or 400,000 rigsbanksdalers. In the year 1770, it amounted to 401,000 rigsbanksdalers, old currency. From 1787 to 1796, the annual average was 578,710 rigsbanksdalers, old currency. In 1806, according to Vogt, the amount was 558,334 rigsbanksdalers, old currency. Its annual average may now be computed at 1,000,000 silver rix dollars, or 200,000 silver rix dollars less than it was at a period less favorable to maritime commerce.*

From the earliest period, this branch of the revenue has appertained to the king's private exchequer, until 1771, when the king surrendered it to the national treasury, and in the year 1816, it was transferred to the commissioners of the public debt and sinking fund.

Vessels passing the Great Belt pay toll at Nyeborg, and those which go through the Little Belt, at Fredericia, but in both cases according to the sound-toll tariff. This rule was adopted by the treaty of 1490, with England, and that of 1560, with the Wendish towns. It is, moreover, expressly directed by the ordinance of 7th June, 1708, and stipulated by the treaty of 3d July, 1720, with Sweden. During the season of navigation, a guard-ship is stationed at Nyeborg, to prevent the evasion of toll. The toll at the belt-offices produced, in 1806, according to Vogt, but 8,463 rigsbanksdalers, currency.

LITERATURE OF THE SOUND-TOLL.

Some scattered contributions to the history of the sound-toll, may be gathered from our historical writers, and particularly from A. Hirtfeld, N. Krag, Resen, and Slange. Suhm, also, furnishes various illustrations. Among foreign historians, the different treatises on the Hanseatic league, and especially Sartorius, History of the Hanseatic Confederation, 3 vols., 1802–1808, ought to be consulted.

The first writer who attempted a sketch of the history of the toll, was, as far as I know, Lord Molesworth, in his Account of Denmark, pp. 16–26, which, erroneous as it is, was long treated as an authority, both by foreign and native historians. This is particularly the case with Holberg, who, in various passages in his History of Denmark, and his other works, communicates some information in respect to the history of the toll. Schytte has also been misled by Lord Molesworth, but has furnished some orginal statistical data. Many inaccuracies are likewise found in Sneedorf's Statistics of Denmark, Thaarup's Statistics, Mandix on the Danish Chancery, and Vogt on the Finances of the Danish Government.

Some unimportant information on the history of the toll, occurs in the Marquis d'Yves, Beyträge Zur Statistik der Dänischen Staaten, but the documents relating to this subject, there printed, are interesting.

V. Steck's treatise, Neber den Sundzoll, principally concerns the privileges of some of the maritime towns of Prussia, which were important before the treaty of 1818. Rehn's Historia vectigalis Oresundici, is principally borrowed from Holberg, and the author's own additions contain many inaccuracies.

Dr. G. L. Baden is the first author, who has industriously collected the

* I cannot reconcile the apparent inconsistency of this statement with what precedes it.—*Translation.*

data for the history of the toll, from the remotest period to the treaty of Christianople, and the results of his investigations are found in his Essays on the History of Denmark, vol. ii., pp. 223–260. These I have endeavored to complete, and they are doubtless susceptible of further additions. His political deduction of the grounds of the toll, on the contrary, is not satisfactory.

The following works treat on the tariff of toll, and rules of collection:

John Atkinson—The Tariff, or Book of Rates on Goods passing the Sound. Glasgow, 1770. 8vo.

De Marien—Tableau des droits et usages relatifs au passaga du Sund. a Copenhague, 1776.

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Art. III.—THE SUGAR-TRADE OF THE WORLD.

NUMBER II.

II. IMPORTING COUNTRIES.

The countries from which the cane sugar is drawn to supply the demand of the great market we have been contemplating, are divided, as has been already remarked, into two groups—the western and the eastern. Geographically speaking, the Cape of Good Hope divides these groups, in our western hemisphere, as the yet scarcely cultivated isles of the Pacific do on the opposite meridian; but the European character of Mauritius and Bourbon, and the nature of their connection with their mother countries, render it advisable to class them with the western sugar countries.

WESTERN GROUP.

These are—the British colonies in the West India islands, and on the main; the French, Spanish, Danish, and Swedish colonies, and the Brazils. Dutch Guiana, as enmeshed in the trammels of the Dutch colonial system, can only be regarded as an appendix to Java; and though sugar is produced in Mexico, Colombia, Guatemala, Peru, and the northern provinces of La Plata, it is in such small quantities as either not to be exported at all, or to an amount too trifling to tell on the market.

British West India Colonies.—In Guiana and Trinidad, there is a great quantity of unappropriated land, fit for the culture of the cane. The average fertility of the British West Indies, even of those old settled

islands which are absurdly enough spoken of as "worn out," is, at the least, equal to the fertility of any other country. Even in Jamaica, the canes will ratoon in most places from three to ten years; and in St. Thomas, in the east, for thirty years. The limited size of the smaller islands has this advantage, that it facilitates the carriage to the shipping port. The numerous water-courses which intersect each other, in the low and level lands of Guiana, have given occasion to a system of canals, which produce a similar effect. The machinery employed in the colonies is much greater in quantity, and superior in quality, to that used in any other sugar countries except the United States. The persevering and energetic character of Englishmen has rendered the processes of industry, although still partaking of the tropical leisureliness, more earnest and continuous than in countries similarly situated. The manner in which England has interfered with the supply of labor, in those colonies, has alone prevented them from far exceeding the production of other sugar countries. A return of the exports from Jamaica, for a term of fifty-seven years, which was submitted to the West Indian committee of 1842, shows the effect produced to the former event. The Bourbon cane was introduced into Jamaica in 1799, and greatly increased the yield of sugar. The exports of 1798 amounted to about 96,000 hhds.; of 1805, to abo t 150,000 hhds.; and the average of the nine years, 1799 to 1807, (the year in which the slave trade was abolished,) were upwards of 130,000 hhds. The following table will show the effect of emancipation on all kinds of West Indian produce:—

Quantities of Produce imported into Great Britain from the year 1831 *to* 1841, *both inclusive.**

Years.	Population.	Sugar.	Molasses.	Rum.	Coffee.	Cocoa.
	Slaves.	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*	*Gallons.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
1831,	800,000	4,103,800	323,306	7,844,157	20,030,802	1,491,947
1832,	.....	3,773,456	553,663	4,713,809	24,673,920	618,215
1833,	.....	3,646,205	686,794	5,109,975	19,008,375	2,125,656
	Apprentices.					
1834,	769,000	3,843,976	650,366	5,112,400	22,081,490	1,360,355
1835,	.....	3,524,209	507,495	5,453,317	14,852,470	439,447
1836,	.....	3,601,791	526,535	4,868,168	18,903,426	1,612,304
1837,	.....	3,306,775	575,657	4,418,349	15,577,888	1,847,145
	Freemen.					
1838,	750,000	3,520,676	638,007	4,641,210	17,588,655	2,149,637
1839,	.....	2,824,372	474,307	4,021,820	11,485,675	959,641
1840,	.....	2,214,764	424,141	3,780,979	12,797,739	2,374,301
1841,	.....	2,151,217	430,221	2,770,161	9,927,689	2,920,298

In 1842, the exports began to increase; and the estimated supplies of sugar from British possessions, in 1843, as appears from the following statement, made on the best authority, exceed the supplies of 1842:—

	Tons.
From the British West India colonies, 190,000 hhds., equal to.....	135,000
Being an inc. of about 12,000 tons upon 1842, and of 30,000 tons upon 1841.	
From Mauritius,.....	25,000
From British India,.....	60,000

French Sugar Colonies.—They are Bourbon, Guadaloupe, Martinique, and Cayenne. The total exports of these colonies, in 1841, amounted to 90,000 tons. In regard to natural fertility, they are on a par with the British sugar colonies. In intelligence, skill, and industry,

* Parl. Paper, No. 293, 1842, pp. 1, 2.

the French colonists are almost on a par with British. Their machinery is certainly inferior, both in quantity and quality; their facilities of procuring capital are less; and the plantations are not conducted on that large scale which best admits of adopting economical processes. Their available labor is, at this moment, rather greater; but the growing feeling against slavery, in France, renders the hold upon their slaves somewhat precarious. They may, ere long, be called upon to go through the process of emancipation, with all its difficulties. The French colonies are also subjected to heavy duties on their sugar, to favor the beet-root sugar of France. To such an extent has the industry of the islands been depressed by these restrictions, that several planters of Martinique and Guadaloupe have been known to seek for personal compensation by carrying their slaves to Porto Rico, and offering them there to the highest bidder.* The consequence is, that French colonial sugar costs at home, on an average, forty francs more than foreign colonial sugar.† That Bourbon, the French Antilles, and Cayenne, are capable, under favorable circumstances, of producing a great deal more sugar than they do at present, is beyond a doubt; but their immediate future is too precarious to allow of any expectation of a speedy increase;—and the abolition of the beet-root sugar manufacture will increase the French demand for cane sugar.

Danish West India Colonies.—There were 13,000 tons exported from the Danish West India islands in 1841. Their limited extent renders it improbable that this quality can be materially increased.

Spanish Colonies.—Cuba and Porto Rico are, with Brazil, the rivals from whose competition the British West India colonies would, under a free-trade system, have most to apprehend. The total export of sugar from Cuba, in 1841, was 155,000 tons; from Porto Rico, 35,000. There is much fertile soil in Cuba; and, except on the north coast, where the north winds sometimes damage the canes, the climate is as favorable as can be conceived for sugar cultivation. The sugar-producers of Cuba have the benefits of slave labor, subject to all the drawbacks which the daily increasing hatred of the slave trade entails upon that questionable advantage. In regard to numerical amount of laborers, Cuba is favorably circumstanced. In regard to skilful application of that labor in agriculture, the island is far behind its neighbors.

The sugar-making processes, and the means of conveyance, are at an equally low ebb. There is no prospect of a speedy increase in the sugar produce of Cuba, unless from the influx of foreign capital, and enterprising and intelligent settlers from the United States. But the dependence of the island upon Spain interposes an obstruction. The wretchedly unsettled state of the parent country affords little hope of wise and energetic government for the colonies. The intriguers who succeed each other at Madrid care for Cuba only as a means of replenishing their empty coffers. At the time Mr. Turnbull visited the island, taxes had just been imposed, under the name of a war contribution, amounting to $2,500,000, the whole of which was to be remitted to Spain. The insecurity of property, exposed to the arbitrary will of needy rulers, holding a precarious authority, will deter capitalists from settling in Cuba. The heavy duties on foreign trade

* Turnbull's Cuba, p. 563.

† Commercial Tariffs and Regulations, part iv., p. 176.

will also cramp the development of the resources of Cuba. If a Spanish and foreign vessel were to arrive at the Havana at the same time, with precisely similar cargoes, the charges on the foreign vessel would amount to $645, the Spaniard paying only $368. This insecurity of property, and these paralyzing duties, will remain until Spain be regenerated, or Cuba become independent; and it is but too probable that, with the existing population of Cuba, a revolution might make matters worse, instead of better. Cuba has soil and climate, and a numerous population in its favor; but the want of skill and facilities of communication, and the insecurity of property, and the mischievous commercial policy of the government, forbid us to expect any rapid and steady increase in the production of its sugars. The same remarks hold good of Porto Rico.

The exports of molasses and sugar from the West Indies to the United States, is very large. We give below the imports of sugar into the United States, mainly from the West Indies:—

	Molasses.	Duty.		Sugar.	Duty.
1833,.....	$2,867,986	5 cts. per gall.	1833,.....	$4,752,343	2½ cents per lb.
1834,.....	2,989,020	"	1834,.....	5,537,829	"
1835,.....	3,074,172	"	1835,.....	6,806,174	"
1836,.....	4,077,312	"	1836,.....	12,514,504	"
1837,.....	3,444,701	"	1837,.....	7,202,668	"
1838,.....	3,865,285	"	1838,.....	7,586,360	"
1839,.....	4,364,234	"	1839,.....	9,919,502	"
1840,.....	2,910,791	"	1840,.....	5,580,950	"
1841,.....	2,628,519	"	1841,.....	8,798,037	"
1842,.....	1,942,575	4½ mills pr. lb.	1842,.....	6,370,775	"

This presents the principal features of the trade in these two important articles of consumption. The imports of sugar have fluctuated more than those of molasses. On reference to the year 1836, the great increase in value will be seen, and the sudden decrease, particularly in sugars. This was created by the vast inflation of prices, and not by a great additional quantity. The prices of sugar and molasses, in New Orleans, ranged as follows, for five years:—

Years.	Molasses.	Sugar.	Years.	Molasses.	Sugar.
1835,.....	17 a 18 c.	5 a 6 c.	1838,.....	26 a 27 c.	5 a 6¼ c.
1836,.....	39 a 40 c.	9 a 10 c.	1839,.....	28 a 30 c.	5½ a 6¼ c.
1837,.....	28 a 30 c.	5¼ a 6¼ c.	1840,.....	22 a 24 c.	4 a 5¼ c.

This exhibits a rise of more than 100 per cent in one year, and nearly as great a fall. This is the great mystery in fluctuating imports; prices make more difference than quantity. The prices in this market vary as much as they do in other cities. The prices in New Orleans, as given above, affected principally their own crop, and the settlement of quotations depend on the condition of all the other markets. The bulk of the imported sugar and molasses comes from Cuba. The growth of the cane in this country has increased within ten years very heavily. Louisiana grows the cane very extensively, and is the largest producer of sugar in the Union, by many millions of pounds. With the exception of Delaware, every state in the Union produces sugar. The United States produce about half the quantity of sugar, of all kinds, that the population consumes. The crop of Louisiana sugar, this year, is reported to be rather limited, compared with previous seasons. The receipts at New Orleans up to December 9th, 1843, were only 2,376 hhds., against 8,523 in 1842, and 4,994 in 1841.

Brazil.—There is an almost inexhaustible supply of excellent sugar-land in Tropical Brazil, situated favorably with respect to navigable streams. Ultimately, the country may produce an enormous quantity of sugar; but the reluctance of capitalists to hazard their money in an unsettled country, the increasing difficulties in the way of procuring additional slave labor, and the embarrassments attendant on a transition from a system of slave labor to one of free labor, may indefinitely postpone that day. The population is much more scattered in Brazil than in Cuba, and the power of combined labor consequently less. There has been, for some time, a steadily-increasing demand for sugar in the United States and European market, and yet it has been insufficient to carry off the sugar of Brazil at a price remunerating to the grower. A gentleman long and intimately acquainted with the trade of Pernambuco, writes—"The exportation of sugar from Pernambuco, from 1st July, 1840, to 1st July, 1841, was 30,690 tons. From 1st July, 1841, to 1st July, 1842, it was 25,393 tons. This year, it is certainly expected to be no more; perhaps it may be less, for cotton has been much more attended to on account of the remunerating price. The cultivation of cotton was diminished for some years, on account of a kind of brand or rot in the bushes, which diminished the returns. This disappeared towards the end of last year, and cotton is again becoming a favorite cultivation." There must be a general reduction in the prices of sugar before the demand for it, in the market of the world, can be very greatly increased; and it would appear that even the existing prices are not sufficient to keep the sugar cultivation of Brazil at its present extent.

EASTERN GROUP.

The sugar-exporting countries of the eastern group are British India, the Eastern Archipelago, Siam, the southern provinces of China, and the Philippine islands. With the exception of Java and the Philippines, the sugar cultivation of all the countries east of the Malayan peninsula is exclusively in the hands of the Chinese. This was also the case, till a comparatively recent period, in Java and the Philippines; but in the former the entire command of the trade has been transferred to the Europeans, and in the latter this transferance is taking place. In reality, therefore, there are only three classes of sugar-exporting countries in the east—British India, Java, and the sugar countries, chiefly in the hands of Chinese, which supply the north of Asia, and from which a small quantity of sugar finds its way to Europe through Singapore.

British India.—The exportation of sugar, at the West India rate of duty, can now take place from all parts of the Bengal and Madras presidencies; but as yet little, if any, Madras sugar, has made its appearance in the British market. Madras has barely ceased to be an importing country, and Bombay and the Straits settlements still are importing countries. Benares is the great centre of the Indian sugar-trade; and the principal produce is in the Dooabs to the north. The region is well watered only in the immediate vicinity of the rivers; and the great canal of irrigation, now constructing by the company's government, will entail considerable expense at the outset. The canes are cultivated by the ryots, and sold by them to the sugar manufacturer. The ryots are content with a low rate of remuneration, but they are too indolent to be tempted by higher prices to increase their exertions. The sugar-trade in India has

struck root, and will increase, but not rapidly. The countries from which the principal supplies of sugar have hitherto been drawn, will not be those which will yield them when the trade reaches maturity. It is in the Delta of Bengal, where this branch of industry is at present only beginning, that it will ultimately settle. It will be the creation of British capital and British colonization, but some time will elapse before capital flows into this new channel. The exports of sugar from British India were, in 1841, 62,000 tons; in 1842, 46,600 tons. In the present year, they are expected to amount to 60,000 tons.

JAVA.—The total exports of sugar from Java were, in 1839, 50,000 tons; in 1840, 60,000 tons. Java has ample quantities of fertile land, a favorable climate, a numerous and industrious population, and, in the Chinese, a large body of intelligent managers and speculators. Nature has done her utmost to make it a productive sugar country; and yet, so far from looking for an increased exportation from that quarter, it is doubtful whether the present supply can be kept up. The inhabitants of Java are obliged to cover a fifth part of their estates with sugar—the canes pay the rent. The cane is prepared in private factories, to which money is advanced by government, which is repaid in raw sugar, received formerly at the fixed rate of 21*s.* 2*d.* per cwt., and now at 15*s.* 3*d.* per cwt. The sugar is exported to Holland, by the Colonial Association of the Netherlands, at the risk of the government, and the company accounts to the government for the proceeds of the sales. It is only the sugar produced in addition to the proceeds of this forced labor that can be sold to the private merchant. The import duties in Java are 25 per cent for foreigners, and 12½ for Dutch merchants. Under this condition, no more than fifteen Dutch houses, and six or eight French, English, and American houses, have been enabled to keep their ground in Java against the company's monopoly. The producer in Java is entirely at the mercy of the company, and its sleeping-partner, the Dutch government. The ambitious project of the late king of Holland, to give the company a monopoly of the refining trade in Europe, has been counteracted by the restrictive duties of the German Zoll-verein, and prohibitive duties of Russia. The company is in debt, and the Dutch refiners are becoming bankrupt. The cultivators of Java are obliged to prosecute a branch of agriculture, without being left free to abstain if they dislike it. And the hands of the Dutch government are tied up—it must persevere in this miserable system till 1850.

MANILLA.—The sugar-cane of Manilla is represented as most luxuriant, exceeding even that of Otaheite. The natives are not more civilized than the negroes, and not so industrious. The manufacture has been, until lately, and still is, in a great measure, in the hands of the Chinese. Manilla, like Cuba, is paralyzed by its subjection to the Spanish government. The same obstacles are opposed to the emigration of intelligent and enterprising European or American settlers, and the influx of European capital. Owing to these circumstances, the exportation of sugar from Manilla has not, of late years, increased by any means in proportion to the increasing demand of Europe. The average amount, for these few years back, has been about 25,000 tons.

CHINESE SUGAR COUNTRIES.—Of these, we only know that the Chinese, in their own southern provinces, in Siam, and some of the islands of the Eastern Archipelago, produce a great deal of sugar. East of Ma-

lacca, they appear, with the exception of the Europeans in Java and Manilla, to have the whole trade in their hands. The sugar production of China is wholly in the hands of the Chinese. In the Birman empire, into which they have not yet penetrated, the cane is only cultivated to be consumed in its natural state. The Chinese sugar districts are the islands of Hainan and Formosa, the provinces of Canton and Fokien, the valley north of Canton, leading down to the Yang-tse-Kian, along which the British embassy travelled, and the province of Setchwen. The surplus produce of these provinces, of Siam, and some from Manilla, is carried by Chinese traders to the northern provinces of China, and thence diffused as far as the northern limits of the Chinese empire, and Bokhara. The amount of sugar annually produced by the Chinese is considerable, and increasing; but their Asiatic market is increasing quite as rapidly. There is no near prospect of an increased supply for the European market from this quarter.

Having subjoined to our review of the importing countries a tabular view of the total imports, as far as ascertained, it seems advisable to close this section of our inquiry with a similar table:—

PRODUCTION OF SUGAR FOR EXPORTATION.

		Tons.
*British West India colonies, (1842,)		123,600
British India, (1842,)		46,600
Mauritius, (1842,)		33,800
Total,		204,000
†Spanish colonies—Cuba,	155,000	
" Porto Rico,	35,000	
" Manilla,	25,000	
		215,000
‡Dutch colonies—Java,	60,000	
" Surinam,	15,000	
		75,000
§French colonies—Guadaloupe, Martinique, Bourbon, and Cayenne,		86,000
‖Danish colonies,		13,000
¶Brazil,		70,000
**Siam, Penang, Singapore, (nearly)		10,000
Total,		673,000

NOTE.—The figures for the British and French colonies are taken from official statements of "imports" into the parent country; the rest from statements of "exports" from the colonies or country. At least 5 per cent ought to be added to the two former on account of loss during the voyage, or deducted from the latter. Deducting 5 per cent from all except the French and British sugars, we arrive at a total of 657,350 tons—a nearer approach to the total imports into the importing countries than could have been anticipated, considering that the tables have been compiled by different persons, and in some cases from different authorities, and that no account could be obtained of the imports into Spain, Portugal, and Italy.

In closing our statements of the Sugar-Trade of the World, it affords us pleasure to refer to an invention, recently perfected, which promises to effect a complete revolution in the manfacture of this important article of commerce.

* Parliamentary Paper—Trade and Navigation, 17th February, 1843.
† Spanish Official Statements. § French Official Statements.
‡ Dutch Official Statements. ‖ Danish Official Statements.
¶ Collected from the statements of merchants trading to Brazil.
** Gathered from various sources—not much to be relied upon.

The ordinary process of making sugar from the cane, is tedious and expensive, as well as wasteful. To simplify this process, and save wastage of the cane liquor, has been the object of innumerable experiments, instituted in various countries at great expense. Citizens of France have expended hundreds of thousands of dollars in chemical experiments, in which the greatest chemists of that country have been industriously and perseveringly engaged for many years, but without obtaining results at all adequate to the time and money expended in the investigation. Similar experiments have been instituted in England and in this country with no better success. The process now carried on upon sugar plantations, consists in pressing out the juice of the cane by rolling-mills, and carefully evaporating it till it has acquired the proper consistency for crystallizing; lime-water is added during this operation to neutralize any free acid, and to facilitate the separation of certain vegetable matters, which, in consequence of the action of the lime, rise more readily to the surface, and admit of being skimmed off. When duly concentrated, the syrup is run off into shallow wooden coolers, where it concretes; it is then put into barrels with holes in the bottom, through which a quantity of molasses gradually drops, and the remaining sugar acquires the granular crystalline state. It is packed into hogsheads, and comes to us under the name of *raw* or muscovado sugar.

The following is a sketch of the process by which raw sugar is purified:—Raw sugar is chosen by the refiner by the fineness and sharpness of its grain. It is put into a copper pan or boiler, previously charged with a certain quantity of lime-water, with which a portion of bullock's blood has been well mixed by agitation, and is suffered to stand a night to dissolve. Early in the morning, fires are lighted under the pans, and when the liquor boils, the coagulated alcumen of the blood rises to the surface, and carries the impurities of the sugar with it. The liquid is kept gently simmering, and continually skimmed, till a small quantity, taken out in a metal spoon, appears perfectly transparent; this generally takes from four to five hours. The clear syrup is then run off into a cistern, the pans are reduced to half their former size, by taking off a movable front, and a small portion of the purified syrup returned into each; the fires are now increased, and the sugar made to boil as rapidly as possible, till a small quantity taken on the thumb is capable of being drawn into threads by the forefinger; the fires are then damped, and the boiling syrup carried off in basins to the "coolers;" a fresh quantity is then pumped into pans and evaporated as before. In the coolers, the sugar is violently agitated with wooden oars till it appears granulated. It is upon this agitation that the whiteness and fineness of grain in the refined sugar principally depend; the crystals are thus broken down while forming, and the whole converted into a granular mass, which permits the colored liquid saccharine matter to run off, and which would be combined with the solid if it were suffered to form into larger crystals. This granular texture likewise facilitates the percolation of water through the loaves in the after process, which washes the minutely divided crystals from all remaining tinge of molasses. Some improvements have been made in this process.

That the above process of refining the sugar produced by the planter is extremely costly, besides being liable to great wastage, is evident from the fact that it greatly increases the cost of the refined sugar. Loaf su-

gar sells at about twelve cents per pound; whereas, the ordinary sugar from which it was manufactured, probably cost only six cents per pound. From this it will readily appear that a process which will produce loaf sugar upon the plantations, almost directly from the cane, with one simple operation, and at a less cost than is now necessary to manufacture the raw sugar, must be a great desideratum. We are happy to say that this desideratum has been accomplished by a gentleman residing upon one of the West India islands, who has spent over fifteen years in investigations and experiments. His invention is founded upon purely scientific principles, but consisting chiefly in the practical application of one well-known principle in a branch of science very much neglected. He is now about to set the newly-invented apparatus in operation on a large plantation in the West Indies, and in the course of two or three months we hope to receive his permission to give the public a more extended idea of the principles of his invention, with which he has kindly made us acquainted. Its benefits to the sugar planter will be immense. We are satisfied that it will not only enable him to produce loaf sugar at a less expense than he now manufactures raw sugar, but it will also enable him to increase the product of his plantation at least 25 per cent, owing to the ease with which it will refine what has hitherto been lost in wastage.

Art. IV.—COINAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

In a former number of this Magazine, we furnished a comprehensive view of the product of precious metals since the discovery of America, which we compiled from the most authentic and authoritative sources. We now proceed to lay before our readers a sketch of the coinage and monetary system of our own country, derived from the "Manual of Gold and Silver Coins of all Nations," by Jacob R. Eckfeldt and William E. Dubois, assayers of the mint of the United States at Philadelphia. At the close of the present paper, will be found a minute account of the operations of the mint of the United States and branches, for 1843, and also a series of tables, exhibiting statements of the annual amounts of deposits of gold, for coinage, in the United States, the amounts coined annually at the general institution and branches, from the commencement of their operations, until December 31st, 1843, &c., all carefully compiled from the annual report of the director of the mint at Philadelphia, and communicated to congress by the president of the United States, January 20th, 1844.

The territory which now bears the name of *The United States*, was in the possession of savage tribes until the seventeenth century. In 1607, the first company of emigrants arrived from Europe, and established the colony of Virginia. At intervals of a few years, new settlements were made in various other quarters; and before the close of that century, the foundations were laid for twelve of the thirteen colonies, which eventually became a Union of free states.

The earliest metallic currency of each colony consisted chiefly of the coins of its mother country. In Massachusetts, however, (and doubtless in all the settlements,) specie was so scarce, that for many years it was common to pay taxes, and to carry on internal trade, by transferring, at

certain rates, cattle, skins, and the products of the soil.* Various considerations, enhanced by the inconvenience and uncertainty of such a medium, induced the Massachusetts colony, in 1652, to establish a mint. The law enacted for that purpose, provided for the coinage of shillings, sixpences, and threepences, to be of the fineness of sterling silver, (925 thousandth,) and by a reduction of weight, to be "twopence in the shilling of less valew than the English coyne."† The mint met with much opposition from the British crown, whose prerogative was invaded by its operations, but continued in existence more than thirty years, during which time a considerable amount of coin was issued. These coins are now extremely scarce, and indeed are not to be found except in the cabinets of the curious. Only the shilling has been seen at this mint, the best specimens of which, at this day, weigh from 64 to 67 grains, and by a recent assay prove to be 926 thousandths fine; the intrinsic value, therefore, is about 16¾ cents. They are a rude coinage, very thin, and of various diameters; and there is some variety in the impressions; but the date of 1652, appears on all of them. The device of a *pine-tree* on one side, has given to the series the common designation of the "pine-tree coinage." They were taken in England at a discount of one-fourth of their home value.

The example of Massachusetts was followed by Maryland, where silver and copper coins were issued in 1662. These pieces were to be equivalent to the British, but in reality were not much heavier than the like denominations coined at Boston.

These were the only issues of silver coin previous to the independence of the states. There were, however, various pieces of copper struck at different periods; as, in 1694, the half-penny for the Carolinas, a two-penny piece and penny in 1723, another penny in 1733, and a half-penny for Virginia in 1773. After the revolutionary struggle of 1776–82, and before the establishment of the national mint, there were various emissions of silver and copper by states and individuals, which will be noticed farther on.

As the population and trade of the colonies increased, foreign gold and silver coins found their way into the country, and became a part of the circulating medium. These were chiefly the guinea, the joe and its half, the doubloon and pistole, in gold; the dollar and its parts, the pistareen and its parts, and the British shilling and sixpence, in silver. French crowns were not known until the revolution, when they became common. But of the specie currency, no piece was so well known as the Spanish American dollar; insomuch that, about the epoch just referred to, it became the effective standard or unit of our moneys.

The *pound* of the colonies was at first the same as the pound sterling of England, being simply a money of account. This relation, in process of time, became greatly altered, in consequence of excessive issues of paper by the colonial authorities; but as these issues were greater in some of the colonies than in others, the proportion was very unequal and

* See Felt's "Historical Account of the Massachusetts Currency," 1839. This work contains much interesting and valuable information.

† The mint indenture or contract required that the shilling should weigh 72 grains, and the smaller pieces in proportion. As the English shilling of those days weighed 93 grains, there appears an unaccountable miscalculation. An abatement of one-sixth of the value would have made 77½ grains.

complicated. The following were the rates of the colonial pounds, in sterling pounds and Spanish dollars, after the revolution :—

	New England and Virginia.			New York and North Carolina.			Middle States.			South Carolina and Georgia.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Pound sterling,....	1	6	8	1	15	6⅔	1	13	4	1	0	8 8-9
Spanish dollar,....		6	0		8	0		7	6		4	8

Peace was scarcely concluded, before the preliminary step was taken towards a national coinage. Congress directed the financier of the confederation, Robert Morris, to lay before them his views upon the subject of coins and currency. The report was presented early in 1782, and is stated by Mr. Jefferson to have been the work of the assistant financier, Gouverneur Morris. It will be interesting to trace the steps by which three grand benefits have been secured to this country; the establishment of a uniform national currency—the rejection of mere moneys of account, or rather, making them the same with real moneys—and the adoption of a decimal notation.

All these objects were in the eye of the assistant financier. He first labored to harmonize the moneys of the states; and found that the $\frac{1}{1440}$th part of a dollar (Spanish) was a common divisor for the various currencies. Starting with this fraction as his unit, he proposed the following table of moneys :—

Ten units to be equal to one penny.

Ten pence one bill.

Ten bills one dollar, (about two-thirds of the Spanish dollar.)

Ten dollars one *crown*.*

The report contains this observation: "Although it is not absolutely necessary, yet it is very desirable, that money should be increased in a decimal ratio; because by that means, all calculations of interest, exchange, insurance, and the like, are rendered much more simple and accurate, and of course more within the power of the great mass of the people."

The subject was discussed repeatedly in Congress, but no further step was taken until 1784, when Mr. Jefferson, on behalf of a committee appointed for the purpose, brought in a report, disagreeing with that of the financier, except as to the decimal system. The following remarks occur in this document: "The most easy ratio of multiplication and division, is that of ten. Every one knows the facility of decimal arithmetic. Every one remembers, that when learning money arithmetic, he used to be puzzled with adding the farthings, taking out the fours, and carrying them on; adding the pence, taking out the twelves, and carrying them on; adding the shillings, taking out the twenties, and carrying them on; but when he came to the pounds, where he had only tens to carry forward, it was easy and free from error. The bulk of mankind are schoolboys through life. Certainly, in all cases, where we are free to choose between easy and difficult modes of operation, it is most rational to choose the easy. The financier, therefore, in his report, well proposes that our coins should be in decimal proportions to one another."

* This last coin was to be of gold. He apologized for introducing the name of *crown*, in a country where that emblem had lost favor, by stating that his project was to have on the coin the representation of an Indian, with a bow in his left hand, and thirteen arrows in the right, with his right foot on a crown. (Spark's Life of Gouverneur Morris, i. 273.)

He found fault with the *unit* of Mr. Morris, first, on account of its diminutive size: "A horse or bullock of eighty dollars value would require a notation of six figures, to wit, 115,200 units;" secondly, because of its want of correspondence in value, with any known coins. In lieu of this the Spanish dollar was proposed, as being of convenient size, capable of easy actual division, and familiar to the minds of the people. It was added, that the course of our commerce would bring us more of this than of any other foreign coin; and besides, the dollar was already as much referred to as a measure of value, as the respective provincial pounds. Upon this basis, it was proposed to strike four coins, viz:—

A golden piece, of the value of ten dollars.

A dollar in silver.

A tenth of a dollar, also in silver.

A hundredth of a dollar, in copper.

The assistant financier conceded something to Mr. Jefferson's views, but adhered to the main principles of his own scheme. It would be out of place to enter into the arguments offered on behalf of each proposition; it is sufficient to say that Congress, in 1785, adopted Mr. Jefferson's report, and in the following year made legal provision for a coinage upon that basis.*

All these proceedings were, of course, under the *Confederation*, which lasted from 1778 to 1787. An article in that compact provided as follows: "The United States, in Congress assembled, shall have the sole and exclusive right and power of regulating the alloy and value of coin struck by their own authority, or by that of the respective states." Some of the states issued copper coins during that period. How long they continued current cannot be stated; but at this day, those of them that remain, are in the custody of coin-collectors. The cent of Massachusetts varies in weight from 148 to 164 grains; the New Jersey piece, 128 to 154 grains; the Connecticut coin is the most irregular, varying from 96 to 144 grains. The Vermont cent of 1786, weighs about 110 grains. There are also other varieties, particularly the "Nova Constellatio," of thirteen stars, and another piece with the same significant number of *rings*, conjoined, both of which were coined in Massachusetts.†

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† The interest taken in this subject by General Washington, and his approval of Mr. Jefferson's plan, appear by the following passage in a letter to Mr. Grayson, member of Congress:—

"I thank you for the several articles of intelligence contained in your letter, and for the propositions respecting a coinage of gold, silver, and copper; a measure which, in my opinion, has become indispensably necessary. Mr. Jefferson's ideas upon this subject are plain and simple; well adapted, I think, to the nature of the case, as he has exemplified it by the plan. Without a coinage, or unless some stop can be put to the cutting and clipping of money, our dollars, pistareens, &c., will be converted, as Teague says, into *five* quarters; and a man must travel with a pair of scales in his pocket, or run the risk of receiving gold at one-fourth less by weight than it counts." (Writings of Washington, edited by Sparks, ix. 125.)

The illustrious father of his country, took a lively interest in the national coinage. The mint was repeatedly noticed in his messages to Congress. (See Sparks, xii. 25, 32, 53, 63.) It was his practice, whilst president, to visit the institution frequently; the seat of government being then at Philadelphia.

† In this place it may be proper to notice a coinage of silver, bearing the name of "J. Chalmers, Annapolis," and dated 1783. The specimens reserved in the collection at the mint, are a shilling, sixpence, and threepence, weighing 57, 27, and 10 grains respectively; of course, very carelessly proportioned.

The constitution of 1787 arrested all these local issues, and vested the right of coinage solely in the general government. The establishment of a mint was, however, still delayed. In the well-known report on moneys, weights, and measures, made to Congress, in 1790, by Mr. Jefferson, then secretary of state, it was remarked: "The experiment made by Congress, in 1786, by declaring that there should be one money of account and payment through the United States, and that its parts and multiples should be in a decimal ratio, has obtained such general approbation, both at home and abroad, that nothing seems wanting but the actual coinage, to banish the discordant pounds, shillings, pence, and farthings, of the different states, and to establish in their stead the new denominations."

On the 2d April, 1792, a code of laws was enacted for the establishment and regulation of the mint, under which, with slight amendments, the coinage was executed for forty-two years.

The denominations of coin, with their rates, were as follows:—

GOLD. The eagle of ten dollars, to weigh 270 grains, the half and quarter in proportion; all of the fineness of 22 carats, or 917 thousandths.

SILVER. The dollar of 100 cents, to weigh 416 grains; the half, quarter, tenth or dime, and twentieth or half-dime, in proportion; the fineness to be 1485 parts in 1664,* or 892·4 thousandths.

COPPER. The cent, to weigh 264 grains; the half-cent in proportion.

Since the act of 1792, the following alterations in the standards have been made:—

On the 14th January, 1793, the weight of the cent was reduced to 208 grains; the half-cent in proportion.†

January 26th, 1796. President Washington issued a proclamation (as he had been empowered to do by law,) that, "on account of the increased price of copper, and the expense of coinage," the cent would be reduced to 7 dwts. or 168 grains, and the half-cent in proportion. The copper coins have since remained at this standard.

June 28th, 1834. An act was passed, changing the weight and fineness of the gold coins, and the relative value of gold to silver. Before stating the alterations, it may be proper to observe, that the estimate of gold as being worth fifteen times as much as silver, which was the original basis, was found too low at the market value; which, although always fluctuating, was nearer sixteen to one, upon a general average. The effect of our legal proportions was to reduce the coinage of gold, and to restrain its circulation; being always at a premium, the coin was immediately exported to Europe, in the course of trade, and there quickly wrought into other shapes.

To provide a remedy for this evil, engaged the attention of some of our

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* This was an arithmetical nicety, deduced from a weight of 416 grains, of which 371¼ grains must be fine metal; this being considered the average content of a Spanish dollar. The estimate was slightly erroneous, and makes our dollar of a little less value; the effect of which has been beneficial to our national coinage, as the difference, though not appreciable in ordinary currency, makes a considerable gain upon recoinage in large sums. See letter of Dr. Moore, late director of the mint, to a select committee of Congress, in 1832.

† The mint was not fully in operation until January, 1795. Before that time it was rather engaged in experimenting; hence the variety of specimens, in silver and copper, anterior to that date, which are now so much in request among the virtuosi. The most noted of these is the Washington cent.

most eminent statesmen for a series of fifteen years.* At length, in June, 1834, the weight of the eagle was reduced by law to 258 grains, (the parts in proportion,) of which 232 grains must be fine gold, making the fineness 21 carats $2\frac{1}{4}\frac{1}{4}$ car. grains, or $899\frac{22}{1000}$ thousandths. This was an increase of $6\frac{88}{1000}$ per cent on the former value of gold. The silver coinage was not changed.

The disadvantages of the complex standards of fineness, both in gold and silver, which were difficult to be expressed or remembered, and very inconvenient in regard to the frequent calculations which were based upon them, early determined the present director to endeavor to effect an improvement. The standard of nine-tenths fine, as adopted in France and some other countries, was obviously the most simple, and, upon every consideration, the most suitable. To bring our silver coins to that proportion, without changing the amount of fine silver in them, it was only necessary to put less copper, by $3\frac{1}{2}$ grains, in the dollar, reducing its weight to $412\frac{1}{2}$ grains. The weight of the gold was not to be changed, but the fineness increased about three-fourths of one thousandth, a difference far within the scope of the legal allowance, and of course hardly appreciable. These proportions were incorporated in a carefully digested and consolidated code of Mint Laws, which was enacted by Congress, in January, 1837. By that act, the eagle is to be 900 thousandths fine, and to weigh 258 grains; the half and quarter in proportion; and the dollar, at the same fineness, to weigh $412\frac{1}{2}$ grains; the parts in proportion.† The allowed deviation in fineness, for gold, is from 898 to 902; for silver, 897 to 903.‡

The following is a recapitulation of the various standards, of the gold and silver coins:—

	Gold Eagle.		Silver Dollar.	
	Weight.	Fineness.	Weight.	Fineness.
	Grains.	*Thous.*	*Grains.*	*Thous.*
Act of April 2, 1792,.....	270	916·7	416	892·4
Act of June 28, 1834,.....	258	899·2	....	.....
Act of January 18, 1837,.....	258	900	412·5	900

It will be proper, in concluding this article, to explain briefly the organization of the mint of the United States. Until the year 1835, there

* The first movement appears to have been made in 1819, by Mr. Lowndes, as chairman of a committee in Congress, who proposed to raise the value of gold to 15·6 against one of silver. Mr. Gallatin, Mr. Ingham, and Mr. C. P. White, proposed very nearly the same proportion, at different times. Dr. Moore, then director of the mint, offered a choice of 15·777 with a fineness of eleven-twelfths, or 15·865 with a fineness of nine-tenths. Mr. Sanford's proportion was 15·9. Eventually, the rate of 16 to 1, which was favored by the existing administration, (Gen. Jackson's,) was adopted. It was feared at the time that the habitual state of the market of precious metals would not justify so high a valuation. It is a remarkable fact, however, that our gold and silver coins have ever since that date passed concurrently, without premiums either way. How long this even pace is to continue will depend upon many contingencies, but especially upon the mining operations. The effect of this valuation upon the labors at the mint, has been very decided. During the eight years which have succeeded the change of ratio, (1834–41,) the coinage of gold at the mint and its branches, has been sixteen millions of dollars, exclusive of the recoinage of pieces of old standard; while, in the eight years immediately preceding (1826–33) the amount was less than four millions. The coinage of silver, from 1826 to 1833, was nineteen and a half millions; from 1834 to 1841, twenty millions.

† The relative value, therefore, of silver to gold, is 15·9884 to 1.

‡ The practical limits here, are, for gold, 899 to 901; silver, 898 to 902.

was but one institution, which was located at Philadelphia. In that year three *branches* of the mint were created by act of Congress. Two of these were for the coinage of gold only, and were to be situated at the towns of Charlotte, in North Carolina, and Dahlonega, in Georgia—central points of the gold mining region. The third branch was for both gold and silver, and located at New Orleans, the commercial emporium of the southwest. These three institutions, which, in the view of the law are not distinct mints, but rather branches of the mint, are respectively managed by superintendents, who are under the control of the director of the parent mint. The branches went into operation in the year 1838. Their coinage is uniform with that of the establishment at Philadelphia, being systematically tested there for approval.

The whole mint establishment, thus constituted, is itself a bureau or branch of the treasury department of the general government, and is under the supervision of the secretary of the treasury.

The coinage at the principal mint in 1843 amounted to $6,530,043 20; comprising $4,062,010 in gold, $2,443,750 in silver, and $24,283 20 in copper coins, and composed of 10,405,233 pieces. The deposites of gold, within the year, amounted to $4,107,807, and those of silver to $2,357,830.

At the New Orleans branch mint, the coinage amounted to $4,568,000; comprising $3,177,000 in gold, and $1,391,000 in silver coins, and composed of 4,030,239 pieces. The deposites for coinage amounted to $3,138,990 in gold, and $1,384,320 in silver.

The branch mint at Dahlonega received, during the year, deposites of gold to the value of $570,080, and its coinage amounted to $582,782 50; composed of 98,452 half-eagles, and 36,209 quarter-eagles.

The branch mint at Charlotte received deposites of gold to the value of $272,064, and its coinage amounted to $287,005; composed of 44,353 half-eagles, and 26,096 quarter-eagles.

The subjoined tables embrace many details of interest respecting the operations of the several mints; and, in particular, exhibit the following facts:—

The whole coinage in the United States, during the past year, amounts to within a small fraction of $12,000,000, and exceeds, by more than one-half, that of any former year. Of this coinage, more than $8,000,000 is in gold; showing a greater proportion to silver than has heretofore been presented.

The branch mints at Charlotte and Dahlonega have each coined nearly double the amount which they have reached in any former year, and the New Orleans mint nearly quadruple.

The production of the gold mines of the United States, as indicated by the amount sent to the mints, exceeds that of any former year.

The following is a statement of deposits and coinage at the mint of the United States and branches, for the year ending 31st December, 1843:—

DEPOSITS OF GOLD.

Mints.	U. S. coins, old standard.	Foreign coins.	U. S. bullion.	Foreign bullion.	Total.
Charlotte, N. C.,....	.....	.....	$272,064	.....	$272,064
Dahlonega, Ga.,.....	.....	.....	570,080	.....	570,080
New Orleans,.....	$1,257	$3,081,962	22,573	$33,198	3,138,990
Philadelphia,.....	26,994	3,548,632	180,728	351,453	4,107,807
Total,.....	$28,251	$6,630,594	$1,045,445	$384,651	$8,088,941

DEPOSITS OF SILVER, AND TOTAL OF GOLD AND SILVER.

Mints.	Foreign coins.	Silver. For. bullion.	Silver. U. S. bullion.	Total.	Total gold and silver.
Charlotte, N. C.,	.....	.....	.....	.....	$272,064
Dahlonega, Ga.,	.....	.....	.....	.....	570,080
New Orleans,	$1,359,621	$24,699	.....	$1,384,320	4,523,310
Philadelphia,	2,101,198	247,992	$8,640	2,357,830	6,465,637
Total,	$3,460,819	$272,691	$8,640	$3,742,150	$11,831,091

The following statement exhibits the value of gold coined in 1843, and the number of eagles, half and quarter eagles, at undermentioned mints:—

GOLD COINED.

Mints.	Eagles. *Pieces.*	Half eagles. *Pieces.*	Quarter eagles. *Pieces.*	Value. *Dollars.*
Charlotte, N. C.,	.....	44,353	26,096	287,005 00
Dahlonega, Ga.,	.....	98,452	36,209	582,782 50
New Orleans,	175,162	101,075	368,002	3,177,000 00
Philadelphia,	75,462	611,205	100,546	4,062,010 00
Total,	250,624	855,085	530,853	8,108,797 50

A similar statement exhibits the coinage of silver, at the several mints of the United States, in 1843:—

COINAGE OF SILVER IN 1843.

	Dollars. *Pieces.*	Half dollars. *Pieces.*	Qr. dollars. *Pieces.*	Dimes. *Pieces.*	Half dimes. *Pieces.*	Value. *Dollars.*
Charlotte, N. C.,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Dahlonega, Ga.,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Orleans,	.....	2,268,000	968,000	150,000	.....	1,391,000
Philadelphia,	165,100	3,844,000	645,600	1,370,000	1,165,000	2,443,750
Total,	165,100	6,112,000	1,613,600	1,520,000	1,165,000	3,834,750

COPPER COINAGE.—Cents, in 1843, were only coined at the mint in Philadelphia; amounting to 2,428,320—in value, $24,283 20.

The following statement exhibits the annual amounts of deposits of gold, for coinage, at the mint of the United States and its branches, from mines in the United States:—

DEPOSITS OF GOLD AT THE UNITED STATES MINT.

Period.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Tennessee.	Alabama.	Various sources.	Total at U. S. mint.
1824,	.....	$5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$5,000
1825,	.....	17,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	17,000
1826,	.....	20,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20,000
1827,	.....	21,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	21,000
1828,	.....	46,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	46,000
1829,	$2,500	134,000	$3,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	140,000
1830,	24,000	204,000	26,000	$212,000	.....	.....	.....	466,000
1831,	26,000	294,000	22,000	176,000	$1,000	.....	$1,000	520,000
1832,	34,000	458,000	45,000	140,000	1,000	.....	.....	678,000
1833,	104,000	475,000	66,000	216,000	7,000	.....	.....	868,000
1834,	62,000	380,000	38,000	415,000	3,000	.....	.....	898,000
1835,	60,400	263,500	42,400	319,900	100	.....	12,200	698,500
1836,	62,000	148,100	55,200	201,400	300	.....	.....	467,000
1837,	52,100	116,900	29,400	83,600	.....	.....	.....	282,000
1838,	55,000	66,000	13,000	36,000	1,500	.....	200	171,700
1839,	57,600	53,500	6,300	20,300	300	$500	.....	138,500
1840,	38,995	36,804	5,319	91,113	104	4,431	.....	176,766
1841,	25,736	76,431	3,440	139,796	1,212	1,863	.....	248,478
1842,	42,163	61,629	223	150,276	.....	5,579	13,717	273,587
1843,	48,148	62,873	5,099	56,619	2,788	4,786	415	180,728
	$694,642	$2,939,737	$360,881	$2,258,004	$18,304	$17,159	$27,533	$6,316,259

The following statement shows the deposits of gold at the branch mints from the commencement of their operations to 1843, inclusive :—

DEPOSITS OF GOLD AT THE BRANCH MINTS.

Years.	Branch mint at Charlotte, N. C.	Branch mint at Dahlonega, Ga.	Branch mint at N. Orleans.	Total at the branch mints.	Total deposits of U. S. gold.
1838,.....	$127,000	$135,700	$700	$263,400	$435,100
1839,.....	126,836	113,035	6,869	246,740	385,240
1840,.....	124,726	121,858	2,835	249,419	426,185
1841,.....	129,847	161,974	1,818	293,639	542,117
1842,.....	174,508	323,372	5,630	503,510	777,097
1843,.....	272,064	570,080	22,573	864,717	1,045,445
Total,..	$954,981	$1,426,019	$40,425	$2,421,425	$3,611,184

The following statement exhibits the amounts of gold coined annually at the branch mints, from the commencement of their operations until December 31st, 1843 :—

AMOUNT OF GOLD COINED ANNUALLY.

Mints and Periods.	Eagles. *Pieces.*	Half eagles. *Pieces.*	Qr. eagles. *Pieces.*	TOTAL OF GOLD. Number. *Pieces.*	Value. *Dollars.*
Charlotte, N. C.—1838,.....	.....	12,886	7,894	20,780	84,165
" 1839,.....	.....	23,467	18,173	41,640	162,767
" 1840,.....	.....	18,994	12,834	31,828	127,055
" 1841,.....	.....	21,467	10,281	31,748	133,038
" 1842,.....	.....	27,480	8,642	36,122	159,005
" 1843,.....	.....	44,353	26,096	70,449	287,005
Total,.	.....	148,647	83,920	232,567	953,035
Dahlonega, Ga.—1838,.....	.....	20,583	.....	20,583	102,915
" 1839,.....	.....	18,939	13,674	32,613	128,880
" 1840,.....	.....	22,896	3,533	26,428	123,310
" 1841,.....	.....	30,495	4,164	34,659	162,885
" 1842,.....	.....	59,608	4,643	64,251	309,648
" 1843,.....	.....	98,452	36,209	134,661	582,782
Total,.	.....	250,973	62,222	313,195	1,410,420
New Orleans—1838,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
" 1839,.....	.....	.....	9,396	9,396	23,490
" 1840,.....	.....	30,400	26,200	56,600	217,500
" 1841,.....	2,500	8,350	7,380	18,230	85,200
" 1842,.....	27,400	16,400	19,800	63,600	405,500
" 1843,.....	175,162	101,075	368,002	644,239	3,177,000
Total,.	205,062	156,225	430,778	792,065	3,908,690
Sum of totals,.....	205,062	555,845	576,920	1,337,827	6,272,145

The following statement exhibits the amount of silver coined at the branch mints annually, from 1838 to 1843, inclusive :—

Mints and periods.	Half dollars. *Pieces.*	Quarter dollars. *Pieces.*	Dimes. *Pieces.*	Half dimes. *Pieces.*	TOTAL OF SILVER. Number. *Pieces.*	Value. *Dollars.*
New Orleans—1838,	.....	.....	403,430	.....	402,430	40,243
" 1839,	116,000	.....	1,291,600	1,060,000	2,467,600	240,160
" 1840,	855,100	425,200	1,175,000	935,000	3,390,300	698,100
" 1841,	401,000	452,000	2,007,500	815,000	3,675,500	555,000
" 1842,	957,000	769,000	2,020,000	350,000	4,096,000	890,250
" 1843,	2,268,000	968,000	150,000	.....	3,386,000	1,391,000
Total,.....	4,597,100	2,614,200	7,046,530	3,160,000	17,417,830	3,814,753

It would seem, from the official report of Mr. Patterson, that no coinage of silver has ever been made at the other branch mints.

The following table shows the total number of pieces, and the value of the same, coined at the several branch mints :—

Years.	Charlotte, N. C.		Dahlonega, Ga.		New Orleans.	
	No. pieces.	Val. in dollars.	No. pieces.	Val. in dollars.	No. pieces.	Val. in dollars.
1838,.....	20,780	84,165	20,583	102,915	402,430	40,243
1839,.....	41,640	162,767	32,613	128,880	2,476,996	263,650
1840,.....	31,828	127,055	26,428	123,310	3,446,900	915,600
1841,.....	31,748	133,038	34,659	162,885	3,693,730	640,200
1842,.....	36,122	159,005	64,251	309,648	4,159,600	1,295,750
1843,.....	70,449	287,005	134,661	582,782	4,030,239	4,568,000
Total,.	232,567	953,035	313,195	1,410,420	18,209,895	7,723,443

The following statement exhibits the coinage of the mint of the United States in several years, from its establishment in 1792, including the coinage of the branch mints from the commencement of their operations, in 1838 :—

Years.	Gold. Value.	Silver. Value.	Copper. Value.	Whole Coinage. No. of pieces.	Value.
1793, 1794, 1795,	$71,485 00	$370,683 80	$11,373 00	1,834,420	$453,541 80
1796,	102,727 50	79,077 50	10,324 40	1,219,370	192,129 40
1797,	103,422 50	12,591 45	9,510 34	1,095,165	125,524 29
1798,	205,610 00	330,291 00	9,797 00	1,368,241	545,698 00
1799,	213,285 00	423,515 00	9,106 68	1,365,681	645,906 68
1800,	317,760 00	224,296 00	29,279 40	3,337,972	571,335 40
1801,	422,570 00	74,758 00	13,628 37	1,571,390	510,956 37
1802,	423,310 00	58,343 00	34,422 83	3,615,869	516,075 83
1803,	258,377 50	87,118 00	25,203 03	2,780,830	370,698 53
1804,	258,642 50	100,340 50	12,844 94	2,046,839	371,827 94
1805,	170,367 50	149,388 50	13,483 48	2,260,361	333,239 48
1806,	324,505 00	471,319 00	5,260 00	1,815,409	801,084 00
1807,	437,495 00	597,448 75	9,652 21	2,731,345	1,044,595 96
1808,	284,665 00	684,300 00	13,090 00	2,935,888	982,055 00
1809,	169,375 00	707,376 00	8,001 53	2,861,834	884,752 53
1810,	501,435 00	638,773 50	15,660 00	3,056,418	1,155,868 50
1811,	497,905 00	608,340 00	2,495 95	1,649,570	1,108,740 95
1812,	290,435 00	814,029 50	10,755 00	2,761,646	1,115,219 50
1813,	477,140 00	620,951 50	4,180 00	1,755,331	1,102,271 50
1814,	77,270 00	561,687 50	3,578 30	1,833,859	642,535 80
1815,	3,175 00	17,398 00	.....	69,867	20,483 00
1816,	.....	28,575 75	28,209 82	2,888,135	56,785 57
1817,	.....	607,783 50	39,484 00	5,163,967	647,267 50
1818,	242,940 00	1,070,454 50	31,670 00	5,537,084	1,345,064 50
1819,	258,615 00	1,140,000 00	26,710 00	5,074,723	1,425,325 00
1820,	1,319,030 00	501,680 70	44,075 50	6,492,509	1,864,786 20
1821,	189,325 00	825,762 45	3,890 00	3,139,249	1,018,977 45
1822,	88,980 00	805,806 50	20,723 39	3,813,788	915,509 89
1823,	72,425 00	895,550 00	.....	2,166,485	967,975 00
1824,	93,200 00	1,752,477 00	12,620 00	4,786,894	1,858,297 00
1825,	156,385 00	1,564,583 00	14,926 00	5,178,760	1,735,894 00
1826,	92,245 00	2,002,090 00	16,344 25	5,774,434	2,110,679 25
1827,	131,565 00	2,869,200 00	23,577 32	9,097,845	3,024,342 32
1828,	140,145 00	1,575,600 00	25,636 24	6,196,853	1,741,381 24
1829,	295,717 50	1,994,578 00	16,580 00	7,674,501	2,306,875 50
1830,	643,105 00	2,495,400 00	17,115 00	8,357,191	3,155,620 00
1831,	714,270 00	3,175,600 00	33,603 60	11,792,284	3,923,473 60
1832,	798,435 00	2,579,000 00	23,620 00	9,128,387	3,401,055 00
1833,	978,550 00	2,759,000 00	28,160 00	10,307,790	3,765,710 00

STATEMENT OF THE COINAGE OF THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Gold. Value.	Silver. Value.	Copper. Value.	Whole Coinage. Number of pieces.	Whole Coinage. Value.
1834,	$3,954,270 00	$3,415,002 00	$19,151 00	11,637,643	$7,388,423 00
1835,	2,186,175 00	3,443,003 00	39,489 00	15,996,342	5,668,667 00
1836,	4,135,700 00	3,606,100 00	23,100 00	13,719,333	7,764,900 00
1837,	1,148,305 00	2,096,010 00	55,583 00	13,010,721	3,299,898 00
1838,	1,809,595 00	2,333,243 00	63,702 00	15,780,311	4,206,540 00
1839,	1,355,885 00	2,189,296 00	31,286 61	11,811,594	3,576,467 61
1840,	1,675,302 50	1,726,703 00	24,627 00	10,558,240	3,426,632 50
1841,	1,091,597 50	1,132,750 00	15,973 67	8,811,968	2,240,321 17
1842,	1,834,170 50	2,332,750 00	23,833 90	11,743,153	4,190,754 40
1843,	8,108,797 50	3,834,750 00	24,283 20	14,640,582	11,967,830 70
	$39,125,688 00	$62,384,684 90	$979,620 96	284,248,071	$102,489,993 86

ROWAN GOLD MINES.—It is stated in the Salisbury Watchman, that there is in Rowan county, North Carolina, the richest gold mine that has yet been discovered in the United States. It is a small vein, from four to twelve inches wide; many bushels of the material taken from it, have overgone $200 to the bushel, and some as high as $500. We see it also stated in the Mecklenburg Jeffersonian, that 11,876 dwts. of gold had been taken from it by seven hands about a month since. As might be expected, in so small a vein, the water soon became unmanageable, and they began again at the surface, and struck a vein parallel to the first, and nearly as rich as that. These veins, as also all those in that region, are believed to increase in richness and size as they descend. There are six or eight other mines in the same region, of extraordinary richness, and different in many particulars from the other vein mines in North Carolina.

ART. V.—POST-OFFICE REFORM.

IN this article, I propose to demonstrate that the postage of letters carried not over 30 miles, might be established at 3 cents; those carried over 30, and not over 400 miles, at 5 cents; and those carried over 400 miles, at 10 cents; and that this reduction can be made without embarrassing the post-office department.

"The idea of making the post-office department a source of revenue to the government, has not been entertained by any one charged with its management since the termination of the last war; during a short period of which, an increase of 50 per cent upon the then rates of postage was imposed for revenue purposes. Nevertheless, the principle upon which it was originally established—that its expenditures should be limited by its income—has been distinctly engrafted upon all the legislative enactments concerning its organization, and prescribing the duties of those charged with their administration."

But while I fully concede the justice of this fundamental principle, that the department is to be sustained by its own revenues, I maintain that it ever has been, and now is, a source of revenue to the government, to the extent of the cost of the franking privilege. As it is now conducted, it is in fact a business monopoly, limiting its profits to the amount of this cost; and in this respect, at least, the popular cry of monopoly now raised against it, is not without foundation.

What the cost of the franking privilege is, appears not to be known to the department itself—such discrepancies exist in the official reports.

Of the number of free letters and packets, no mention is made in the reports of the postmaster general, since the report dated December 3d, 1842. In that report, it is stated that "the whole number of free letters sent through the post-office annually, so far as the returns of the postmasters exhibit, is about 3,000,000," and "assuming 15 cents as the average rate of each letter, if charged with postage, $450,000 would be the amount received." It will be observed that this sum is mentioned as the amount which would be received from free *letters* only, and that their average rate has been set down by the postmaster general at 15 cents each, for the same year in which the average rate of other *single* letters was something less than 12½ cents, (as may be calculated from the estimate of the postmaster general himself, in his report, dated January 5, 1842,) showing that of every eight free letters, he has estimated two, as being, if charged, subject to the postage of double letters. And mark, further, that this sum of $450,000, is not *all* which would be received from free letters, but only as much as would be received from the free letters, "as far as the returns of the postmasters exhibit;" it being expressly said in the postmaster general's report, dated December 7th, 1840, that "the books of the department furnish no data for determining the number of free packets conveyed in the mail, as a large portion of them are not entered on the post bills."

In the "regulations for the government of the post-office department," printed in 1843, by order of the postmaster general, section 375 directs the returns of free letters in the following words: "If the commission on letters, newspapers, and pamphlets, do not exceed $500 in one quarter, the deputy postmaster will then set down the number of free letters received by mail for delivery at the office, and carry the amount, at 2 cents each, to his credit." From this order, we conclude, that deputy postmasters render an account only of the number of free letters, and sealed packets of written matter on which they are entitled to charge the commission of 2 cents, so that the books of the department now furnish no data whatever for ascertaining the annual number of free newspapers, pamphlets, and documents, nor the number of free letters and sealed packets of written matter which are received by deputy postmasters, nor that of those which are delivered by deputy postmasters, whose commissions otherwise exceed $500 per quarter.

In the report already quoted, after setting down $450,000 as the amount which would be received, if the stated number of free letters were charged with postage, the postmaster general adds: "The loss to the department does not stop here; 2 cents are paid to postmasters on each of these letters, constituting an annual charge upon the revenue of $60,000;" from which the conclusion seems to be, that our postmaster general has returns showing that the 2 cents commission amounted to $60,000; and, from the knowledge of this fact, *calculated* the estimated number of 3,000,000 of franked letters, forgetting that he had to add to this estimate the number delivered by deputy postmasters, receiving no commission on free letters, not to mention those received by deputy postmasters themselves, which, for the purpose of our argument, should be considered as a legitimate charge on the department. And it is also probable, from the round numbers mentioned in the estimate, that the number of free let-

ters, and the amount of the commissions thereon, have never been calculated with accuracy by the department. I am thus particular, in order to show that these numbers are a very low estimate, for in the report of December 7, 1840, two years before, the postmaster general estimates the 2 cents commission on the free letters and packets, (their number being estimated at 4,781,359,) *sent from* the office in Washington city only, during the session of thirty-three weeks, at $95,627; and Mr. George Plitt, a special agent of the department, in his report submitted to Congress, dated November, 1840, on the subject, says: "The actual number of franked packages sent from the post-office of Washington city, during the week ending on the 7th of July last, was 201,534; and the whole number sent during the last session of Congress, amounted to the enormous quantity of 4,314,948. All these packages are not only carried by the department into every section of the country, *free of charge*, but it is actually obliged to pay to every postmaster, whose commissions do not amount to $2,000 per annum, 2 cents for the delivery of each one. Supposing all the above to have been delivered, the department would lose for its revenue, for this one item, upwards of $80,000, besides paying for the mail transportation." Of these last two estimates—adopting that of Mr. Plitt, which is the less, and in which the number of free letters and packets subject to the 2 cents commission is not given as an estimate, but as the assertion of a fact—if we suppose that for every *two* sent from the office in Washington city, there was *one* received, we shall have 6,472,422, as the number of free letters and packets sent to and from this single office during a session of thirty-three weeks; and estimating these at the low average of 12½ cents each, they will amount to upwards of $800,000. How much should we add for the entire free printed matter, and how much for the free letters and packets, carried by the mails during the rest of the year.

Sufficient has been said to show the absence of correct information on this subject, and that the estimate of our present postmaster general is most probably too low. But admitting his estimate of $450,000 to be correct, how much shall we add for the free letters and packets delivered by deputy postmasters, who receive no commission thereon, and how much for the free printed matter on which no deputy postmaster receives any commission? And besides $60,000 paid to deputy postmasters as commissions thereon, how much shall we add for advertising the free letters which are not called for? this charge amounting in some cases to 4 cents each, and is never less than 2 cents each.

I venture to complete the estimate of the present postmaster general, thus:—

3,000,000 of free letters, "as exhibited by the returns of deputy postmasters," at 15 cents each,.....	$450,000
Commissions of deputy postmasters thereon, at 2 cents each,.	60,000
1,000,000 of free letters, *not* exhibited by the returns of deputy postmasters, at 15 cents each,.....	150,000
Cost of advertising free letters,.....	30,000
Free printed matter, if charged at the usual rates,.....	210,000
Total,.....	900,000

That the number of free letters here set down as *not* exhibited by the

returns of the deputy postmasters, is a low estimate, may be judged from the fact, that the total revenue which should be collected from free letters is, in this estimate, less by $200,000 than our former estimate of the revenue, which should be collected from the free letters sent to and from the single office in this city.

That the cost of advertising free letters is here set down at a low estimate, may be judged from the following passage, extracted from the report of the postmaster-general, dated December 7th, 1840: "It may be estimated that there has been abstracted from the revenue of the past year in the allowance of the 2 cents to postmasters for the delivery of free letters and packets, and the 2 cents paid for advertising free letters, the sum of $150,000." In my estimate, these two items together amount to only three-fifths of this sum.

And that the sum which would be collected from free printed matter, if paid for at the ordinary rates, is here set down at a very low estimate, will appear from the fact that the privilege of franking printed matter is not confined to those who frank their private correspondence. The governors of the several states may transmit by mail, free of postage, all laws and reports, whether bound or unbound, which may be directed by the legislatures of the several states to be transmitted to the executives of other states. And every printer of newspapers may send one paper to each and every other printer of newspapers within the United States, free of postage. This last item will, of itself, we believe, exceed our estimated sum. There are upwards of 1,300 publishers of newspapers in the United States, and it is notorious, that some of them have estimated their exchange papers at 200 per day. But suppose these newspapers to be all published once a week only, and that an exchange paper is sent to one of every other four printers of newspapers, each printer will transmit, free of postage, 16,900 papers annually, and altogether an annual number of 21,970,000, which, at only 1 cent each, will amount to $219,702, a sum exceeding my estimate for all free printed matter by nearly $10,000.

The argument is strengthened by the report of December, 1840. The postmaster general says, that "the increase of revenue from the modification and restriction of the franking privilege, may be estimated at $250,000." Now, as this modification and restriction is based on the supposition, that thereby "two-thirds of the mail matter now going free would be excluded, and what remained would be charged with postage," it conclusively follows, that he has in this case estimated the cost of the franking privilege at $750,000. And if to this sum we add his estimate of $150,000, for commissions to deputy postmasters, and the cost of advertising, we shall have at once the amount of our estimate, besides the cost of the franking privilege of printers of newspapers, which is expressly excluded in his proposed restrictions.

I know of no other official sources than the reports already mentioned, from which we can derive information on this subject; and this, it has been seen, is at once meagre, unsatisfactory, and contradictory.

With these views, I consider it safe to set down $900,000 as a *very low* and fair estimate of the cost of the franked matter carried by the mails in the year ending on the 30th day of June, 1842, the postages thereon being calculated at the same rates as other matter; and there is no reason why we should estimate this cost for the year ending on the 30th day of June, 1843, at a less sum; for the causes which produced in

this year a decrease of the revenue, on paid matter, could have had no effect on the franking privilege.* The question now is—what revenue collected from the matter now paying letter postage, would, together with the revenue which would be collected from franked matter, if it were subject to the same postage rates, be equal to the revenue which is now paid to the department as postages of business and friendly letters?

In considering the amount now paid for postages, I exclude that which is contributed by newspapers and pamphlets, for reasons which will afterwards appear.

From the report of the postmaster general, I learn that the gross revenue of his department for 1843, was less than that for 1842 by upwards of $250,000; and he ascribes this decrease of revenue principally to "the operations of the numerous private posts, under the name of expresses, which have sprung into existence within the past few years, extending themselves over the mail routes between the principal cities and towns, by which and at which, the railroads pass and terminate." Now, the numbers of franked matter not being affected by these expresses, its general proportional cost cannot be duly estimated by comparing it with the revenue of 1843; I shall, therefore, take the report of the year ending June 30, 1842, as the basis of my calculation, in which year the revenue from letters was $3,953,319 34, and the revenue which would have been collected from franked matter, at the same rates, was, according to the estimate, $900,000.

By calculating proportionally, it appears that if all mail matter had duly contributed to the revenue of the department, there should have been $733,103 91 collected as the postage of franked matter; and, as the postage of other matter, only $3,220,215 43, instead of $3,953,319 34. So that there has been paid for business and friendly correspondence, upwards of $730,000 *more* than its actual cost, and on this correspondence the franked letters have been a tax to the same amount. Thus, of every $100 paid by the merchant to the post office, he pays $18 50 as a tax to defray the expense of free letters; while the retired capitalist, who writes perhaps but half a dozen letters in a year, contributes scarcely anything—a tax unequally imposed, as well as unjust in principle.

By a similar calculation it will be found, that, for the year ending June 30, 1843, in which the gross revenue from letters was $3,712,786 23, there was over $24 contributed towards the expense of the franking privilege by every $100 paid for private correspondence. In this year, the true proportional revenue which should have been contributed by franked matter, was $724,401 14; and by private correspondence, $2,988,385 09.

With this view of the case, it is plain that letter postages may be, to some extent, reduced, and that the department will, notwithstanding, be still able to sustain itself by its own revenue, under the same gross expenditures, and at the same extent of franking privilege, even though the

* The report of the postmaster general, dated January 18th, 1844, is apparently at variance with my estimate of the cost of the franking privilege. During the month of October, 1843, there passed through the mails 130,744 letters franked by the postmasters or received free by them; 18,558 letters, franked by members of Congress; 85,339 letters, franked by other officers, state or national, and 596,760 free newspapers. But no estimate for the year can be based on this statement: for, during the month of October, Congress and many of the state legislatures were not in session.

numbers of paid matter should not be increased in consequence of this reduction.

It is at the same time certain, that, *without* an increase of paid matter, the rates cannot be reduced to that extent which petitioners now demand, without supplying the deficiency from the funds of the public treasury; and against this principle, which has met with some distinguished advocates, I protest, for similar reason as that which induced me to demand that the expense of the franking privilege should be paid from the public funds. Just in proportion to the extent they use the mails, should individuals be required to contribute to the expenditures of the department; whereas, if the whole or any part of the cost of their correspondence was appropriated from the treasury, every poor citizen, as well as the retired capitalist, would be necessarily required to contribute towards this expense as much as the merchant, who, for every one of their letters, perhaps writes a thousand.

The proper enquiry therefore is, what are the lowest rates of postage by which the same amount of revenue can be collected?

The advocates of a greatly reduced postage tariff, generally point to the example of England as a proof of its practicability, where the tariff imposes on single letters, for whatever distance they are carried, a uniform rate, about one third of what we pay for our lowest grade; and where, notwithstanding this enormous reduction from an average postage equal to our own, there was, the first year thereafter, realized a net revenue of $2,250,000.

We must be cautious, however, in following its example, as our case is, in various respects, widely different. In England, the gross amount of postages varied little for twenty years previous to the reduction, notwithstanding population and commerce was estimated to have increased within this period upwards of 40 per cent. Whereas, in this country, the postages have been quadrupled in the same length of time; and, since 1789, when the department was first instituted, have increased from an annual sum less than $38,000 to about $4,500,000.

Such, too, is the sparseness of our population, and the immense geographical extent of our country, that with our present high tariff, our expenditures have for the last seven years so much exceeded the receipts as to embarrass the department; while the post-office of the united kingdom, when its average postage tariff was very nearly the same as our own, contributed to government a clear revenue of nearly $8,000,000.

It is also to be remembered, that the penny postage system was adopted in England mainly from the representation that the reduced uniform rate would be followed by so great an increase in the number of letters posted, that the net revenue of the crown would sustain no diminution in consequence. Whereas, it appears from the late English papers that the revenue of the post-office for the last fiscal year was less than the net revenue of the fiscal year preceding; thereby showing that, at the end of less than three years, the *consequent* increase in the number of letters had reached its maximum, and settling the net revenue by the penny system at about $2,700,000, only 34¼ per cent of the net revenue before the reduction, when it was about $7,900,000.

From the official reports, however, of the results of the penny system, as far as they relate to an increase in the number of letters, we may derive some valuable lessons.

"In a week preceding the 24th November, 1839, under the old and high rates of postage, there were posted 1,585,973 letters. At this rate for the year, the annual number would be 82,470,596. But as it appears, from the documents accompanying the report of the postmaster general, dated December, 1842, this number included the franked letters, of the amount of which we have no distinct information, we set down the annual number of chargeable letters, as estimated by the committee of parliament, at 77,500,000."

"The gross revenue for the year preceding 5th January, 1839, under the old rates of postage, was $11,262,134.'"* This is the last year of which we have complete annual returns of the revenue under the former postage rates.

It hence appears that the average rate of each letter on which postage was charged, was $14\frac{4}{10}\frac{5}{0}$ cents. But as this number is based on an estimate of the *real* number of letters, as plainly appears from the documents accompanying the report of December, 1842, we may set down the average rate of a *single* letter, before the reduction of postage, at 12½ cents; which will be the case, if we suppose that of every twelve chargeable letters, two of them were charged with double postage.

This is the true method of calculating the average; and we take this opportunity to caution others against drawing any conclusion from an average of the former rates, as given at length by the postmaster general.

"The number of *single* chargeable letters delivered, which annually pass through the post-office of the United States, has heretofore been estimated at 24,507,994." This estimate, taken from the report of the postmaster general, dated December, 1843, is that furnished in the year 1836, as appears from the report to the senate, dated January 5, 1843, in which he says: "I submit a table exhibiting the present rates of postage, and the distances and probable number of letters, and amount received upon each class of letters, compiled from data furnished by this department in 1836." [And that this table actually relates to the mail matter of 1836, will afterwards appear.]

Letters.		Miles.		Amount.
5,328,600	carried not over	30 at 6	cents,	$319,716
7,992,890	" "	80 " 10	"	799,289
5,328,600	" "	150 " 12½	"	666,075
3,992,896	" "	400 " 18¾	"	748,668
1,865,008	" over	400 " 25	"	466,252
24,507,994 total letters.		Total revenue,		$3,000,000

It hence follows that the average rate of a single chargeable letter delivered in the United States, in 1836, was somewhat over 12½ cents; and this average being nearly the same as the average in the United Kingdom before the reduction of postage, we may conclude that a reduction of our postage rates to a rate or rates equivalent to the uniform reduced postage of the United Kingdom, would be followed by an equal increase of correspondence.

The penny rate of the United Kingdom commenced on January 10th, 1840, and, forming an average from the number of letters delivered in the third week of each month for a year, commencing with the week ending

* Report of the postmaster general, dated December 2, 1843.

on the 23d of February, 1840, (as given in the report of the postmaster general, dated December, 1842,) we find that the average number of letters, delivered weekly, during the first year of the penny postage, was 3,282,085, being an increase of an average of 1,696,112 letters weekly; if we take the number of letters delivered in the week ending November 24, 1839, which was 1,585,973, as the former weekly average. The increase of letters was, therefore, about 107 per cent on the former number.

This per centage of increase is based on numbers representing the letters actually delivered, and of course including franks during the existence of the franking privilege. We may, therefore, consider it as a *safe* estimate of what would have been the increase on chargeable letters, if the franking privilege had not been abolished; for we can hardly suppose that franked letters would have increased in an equal ratio.

It is much to be regretted that the official returns of the posto-ffice in the United Kingdom do not exhibit the number of letters carried now and formerly at the former different grades of distance; for we might then deduce with accuracy the rates of increase in the number of letters, according to the different rates of reduction on the postage, and be furnished thereby with sure rules to guide us in calculating the effects of any proposed reduction on our present postage rates.

We are happily, however, enabled to make one other calculation, on this subject, from the following statement in the report of December, 1842:

"The rate of postage in the London district averaged 2½*d.* for each letter, before the changes previous to January, 1840; at present, the postage of each letter averages about 1½*d.* The gross receipts in 1838 (the last complete year under the old rates) were (after deducting certain receipts for general post letters) £118,000."

Now, 12,137,143 letters, at 2½*d.* each, will represent the former annual revenue of £118,000; and by adding the monthly returns contained in the same report, we find that the actual number of letters which passed through the London district post in the year ending January 2, 1841, was (exclusive of all general post-office letters) 20,305,915, being an increase of 8,168,772, and showing that a reduction of 46½ per cent on the rate, was followed by an increase of over 67 per cent on the former number of letters.

Whatever may be the estimates of the number of letters now carried by the mails of the United States, at the several different grades of distance,—the expresses already mentioned must have had such a disturbing influence on their ordinary proportion,—it would be wrong to depend upon them as a sufficient test of any proposed reduction on the present rates of postage, especially if the proposed reduction was so great as to destroy the influence of the expresses. And as our future calculations will be based on the supposed truth of this hypothesis, we shall first estimate the future revenue of the department on the basis of the revenue for the year ending June 30, 1842.

In the fourth page of the report already quoted, dated January 5, 1843, the postmaster general says:

"In the foregoing estimate of income and expenditure, I have adopted the amount of mail matter in 1836, and the amount of expenditure for 1842. There has been no account taken of the number of letters which passed through the mail during the last year. An estimate of the number may be made by the amount of letter postage received during the

rates, if they were reduced, as here supposed, to the uniform rate of 3 cents. If it were exactly 50 per cent, we should have an increase of 75 per cent, instead of 75¾; 105, instead of 106; 114, instead of 115; 126, instead of 127; and 132, instead of 133¼.

Whence it may be established as a safe proposition, that *when the reduction of postage on a given rate, is not less than 50 per cent, it will be followed by an increase of letters on this rate at a per centage one-half greater than the per centage of reduction on the rate.*

So that, on reducing the 6-cent letters to 3 cents, there will be an increase of 75 per cent on their number; the 10-cent letters to 5 cents, also 75 per cent; the 12½-cent letters to 5 cents, 90 per cent; the 18¾-cent letters to 5 cents, 110 per cent; and the 25-cent letters to 10 cents, 90 per cent on their present number. By this estimate there will be a gross increase of 27,495,519 letters, being an average of 85 per cent, of increase on the present number; and the gross revenue will be $2,976,786 13. The account stands thus:—

Letters— Present number.	Increased number.				
7,021,886	5,266,415	(75 per cent,)	at	3 cents,	$368,649 03
10,532,815	7,899,611	(75 ")	"	5 "	921,621 30
7,021,887	6,319,698	(90 ")	"	5 "	667,079 25
5,261,731	5,787,904	(110 ")	"	5 "	562,481 75
2,457,657	2,221,891	(90 ")	"	10 "	466,954 80
32,295,976	27,495,519	(85 ")	"	5 nearly,	$2,976,786 13

It will be remembered that this *estimate* is based on the returns of 1842, where the gross revenue from letters was $3,953,319 34; so that the first year of the reduced tariff would (nothing else considered) produce a deficit of $976,533 21. And allowing that the *annual* increase of letters in consequence of the reduction of postage will be 15 per cent, there will be, for the second year, a deficit of $530,015; and for the third year, $16,520.

This is a moderate estimate of the annual increase; for we learn from the postmaster general's report for 1842 (pages 750, 753,) that the annual increase in the United Kingdom, for the second year after the reduction of postage, was 21 per cent.

If we proceed with the estimate for a fourth year, instead of a deficit, there will be a surplus of $574,000.

But I am not disposed to depend on an annual increase to this extent; the probability being that the letters now diverted from their legitimate course, would, say in two or three years at the utmost, find their proper channel, and that the subsequent rate of increase would continue, as heretofore, no more than sufficient to enable the department to extend its operations as the public exigency might demand.

Indeed, the late news from England shows, as we have already remarked, that at the end of three years after the adoption of the penny system, the net revenue had become stationary at about 34 per cent of the former net revenue.

It should be observed that I use the proposition relative to the increase of letters, only where the reduction of the rates is not less than 50, nor over 73⅓ per cent. I have already shown, in the case of the London dis-

trict post, that a reduction of 46½ per cent on the postage rate was followed by an increase of letters of only 67 per cent, instead of 69$\frac{6}{10}$ according to the proposition; and it is very certain that a very small reduction in the rates would be followed by no increase whatever in the number of letters. I do not presume to determine the precise extent of reduction on the rates at which the increase of letters would commence; but think it very probable that a change of the present rates of 6, and 12½ cents, to 5 and 10 cents, being a reduction of 16⅔ per cent in the former case, and 20 per cent in the latter, would not sensibly affect the present number of letters, whilst it would considerably lessen the present gross revenue. The probability is, that after that extent of reduction on the rates which first begins to operate as a cause of increase in the letters, a greater reduction on the rates would be followed by an increase of letters in a much greater ratio than the ratio of increase on the reduction of rates; and that, after reaching a certain extent of reduction on the rates, the ratio of increase of letters would be very little affected by a still greater reduction on the rates. And, for this latter reason, it is no objection to our proposition to say, that according it a reduction of 100 per cent on the ratio, would produce an increase of letters of only 150 per cent. By the penny system, in England, I have shown from official sources, which cannot be contradicted, that the average increase of letters for the first year after the reduction, was not ten times, or seven times, or even four times their former number, as is commonly stated in our newspapers—but only 107 per cent of that number. We may reasonably suppose, that those who in England are deterred from writing a letter by the postage of one penny, would be also deterred by the price of paper and ink, were the postages abolished altogether; and that (newspapers not being considered) the main effect of this hypothesis would be, that "no cure, no pay" handbills, and such like matter, which does not now pass through the mails at all, would be thrust in their faces under the appearance of friendly correspondence.

I shall now test the proposition relative to the increase of letters, by applying it to the hypothesis of the postmaster general, that a uniform rate of 10 cents on all letters carried over 30 miles, would be followed by a probable increase of 20 per cent on this class of letters. On the 10-cent letters there would certainly be no increase; nor can we calculate on an increase of either the 6-cent or the 12½-cent letters, the reduction not being over 20 per cent; on the 18¾-cent letters, the reduction being 46⅔ per cent, the increase would be 67 per cent, (as in London district post,) while on the 25-cent letters, the reduction being 60 per cent, there would be an increase of 90 per cent, according to my proposition. This increase would amount to 5,737,251 letters, which, on the present number of 25,274,090, is about 22$\frac{7}{10}$ per cent; a per centage only 2$\frac{7}{10}$ more than the low estimate of the postmaster general—being a difference so small, that I cannot but conclude that the estimated increase of letters in consequence of the adoption of my proposed rates, must certainly meet the approbation of the present postmaster general.

Let us now estimate the probable result of the adoption of the uniform rate of 5 cents. In this case, we can calculate upon no increase of the 6-cent letters; and on the 25-cent letters, the reduction on the rates being 80 per cent, there will be a probable increase of 120 per cent, according to my proposition.

Letters.	Increase.			Gross revenue.
7,021,886			at 5 cents,	$351,094 30
10,532,815	7,899,611	(or 75 per cent,)	" "	921,621 30
7,021,887	6,319,698	(" 90 ")	" "	667,079 25
5,261,731	5,787,904	(" 110 ")	" "	552,481 75
2,457,657	2,949,188	(" 120 ")	" "	270,342 25
32,295,976	22,956,401		" "	$2,762,618 85

This estimate shows a deficiency in the gross revenue of—

($3,953,319 34—$2,762,618 85)=$1,190,700 49,

being a deficiency greater than that which would be produced from the adoption of my proposed tariff by $214,167 28. And, as it appears to me that this deficit cannot be sustained by the department without an appropriation from the treasury, it is unnecessary to consider farther the effects of this uniform rate. I may observe, however, that it has not the recommendation of reducing the 6-cent letters to a rate sufficiently low as to remove the temptation to evade the postage laws in the thickly settled portions of our country; whilst my proposed rate of 3 cents, besides being sufficient and just, would actually increase the revenue from this class of letters, viz :—($868,649 03—$351,094 30=$17,554 73.)

I shall now consider the probable effects of the adoption of the bill proposed in the senate by the Hon. Mr. Merrick, testing it by the same plan of calculation.

By this bill, single letters carried under 100 miles are to be charged 5 cents, and all over that distance, 10 cents. In this case, as in the last, there would be no probable increase of the 6-cent letters. On the 10-cent letters there would be 75 per cent of increase. On a portion of the 12½-cent letters, the reduction on the rate being 60 per cent, the increase would be 90 per cent; but on the remaining portion, there would be no probable increase, the reduction on their rate being only 20 per cent. On the 18¾-cent letters, the increase would be 67 per cent, the reduction on their rate being only 46⅔ per cent. And on the 25-cent letters, the reduction of rate being 60 per cent, the increase will be 90 per cent.

In the report transmitted to the senate, by the postmaster general, dated January 5th, 1843, it is estimated that when the number of letters, under 30 miles, was 5,328,600, the number of letters carried over 30 to 100 miles, 9,515,390; we may therefore conclude, that when the number of letters carried under 30 miles is (as in 1842) 7,021,886, the number of letters carried over 30 to 100 miles is 12,539,125. Now, the number of letters carried over 30 to 80 miles being 10,532,815, it appears that the letters carried over 80 to 100 miles is 2,006,310; and the number of letters carried over 80 to 150 miles being 7,021,887, that the number of letters carried over 100 to 150 miles is 5,015,577.

The gross revenue under this bill, will, therefore, stand thus :—

Letters.	Increase.			Gross revenue.
7,021,886			at 5 cents,	$351,094 30
10,532,815+	7,899,611	(or 75 per cent,)	" 5 "	921,621 30
2,006,310+	1,805,679	(" 90 ")	" 5 "	190,599 45
5,015,577			" 10 "	501,557 70
5,261,731+	3,525,360	(" 67 ")	" 10 "	878,709 10
2,457,657+	2,221,891	(" 90 ")	" 10 "	466,954 80
32,295,976+	15,452,541			$3,310,536 65

For convenient reference, I subjoin a table of these results, as far as they exhibit the gross revenue that will be obtained from chargeable letters, delivered at the present and the different proposed rates; and, also, the deficit for the first year under the reduced rates.

Miles.	Present Tariff.		P. M. G.'s T'riff.		Merrick's T'ff.		Uniform Rate.		Proposed T'r'ff.	
Not over	Rates.	Revenue.	Rates.	Revenue.	Rates.	Revenue.	Rates.	Revenue.	Rates.	Revenue.
		Dollars.		Dollars.		Dollars.		Dollars.		Dollars.
30	6 cts.	421,313	5 cts.	351,094	5 cts.	351,094	5 cts.	351,094	3 cts.	368,649
80	10	1,053,281	10	1,053,281	5	921,621	5	921,621	5	921,621
100	—	—	—	—	5	190,599	—	—	—	—
150	12½	877,736	10	702,189	10	501,558	5	667,079	5	667,079
400	18¾	986,575	10	878,709	10	878,709	5	552,482	5	552,482
Over 400	25	614,414	10	466,955	10	466,955	5	270,342	10	466,955
Total,..		3,953,319		3,452,228		3,310,536		2,762,618		2,976,786
Deficit, the first year,...				501,091		642,783		1,190,701		976,533

In the above table, the revenue under the tariff proposed by the postmaster general, is estimated on the basis of my proposition on the increase of letters. It will be perceived that the total revenue thus exceeds his own estimate by $68,244.

I proceed with my argument on the supposition that the lowest tariff which will be sufficient to cover the expenditures, is that which Congress should adopt.

My proposed tariff has this two-fold advantage over all the others: 1st, it will produce a greater revenue on the first class of letters; and, 2d, it will remove all objections to the adoption of the prepayment system; for, under it, a double charge on letters not prepaid will in no case exceed the present rate.

It is not liable to the objection that may be urged against the tariffs proposed by the postmaster general and Senator Merrick—that the rates are not sufficiently low as to destroy the influence of the expresses—an objection of so great weight, as to make doubtful the estimated increase in the number of letters under their tariffs.

My proposed rates are, moreover, low enough to satisfy the just demands of the public, and render the penal laws on postage no longer oppressive and odious; and, for this reason, (besides the two-fold advantage already mentioned,) I prefer them to the proposed uniform rate of 5 cents. Better to adopt a tariff which will probably bear a further reduction in future years, than one which is in any degree likely to become a burden on the public treasury, or else need to be altered to higher rates.

From the documents accompanying the report of the postmaster general, dated December 3d, 1842, I learn that of the 52,681,252 letters which passed through the London general post for the year ending February 27th, 1841, (the first complete year under the new system,) 48,130,159 were prepaid, or about 91 per cent of the whole number, whilst formerly there was only 14 per cent; being a difference of 77 per cent in favor of the new system. There is no reason why the prepayment system should not be followed by the same effects here. Now, the postmaster general, in his report, dated January 18th, 1844, says, "the number of dead letters returned to the general post-office, may be stated at not less than 1,200,000."

On this number, 77 per cent will be $924,000, which, at the average of 5 cents each, will produce an additional revenue of $46,200.

To secure the full benefit of the prepayment system, labels or receipts of postage should be introduced. They will, as Sir Rowland Hill predicted, in the case of England, "simplify and accelerate the posting of letters, both to the public and the post-office; will secure prepayment, by relieving messengers from the temptation to purloin the postage; will register accurately the receipts of the postage revenue, and afford, for the first time, an effectual check upon the receivers; will economise the trouble of paying postage, to suit every one's taste and convenience; and, lastly, will effect a voluntary forestalment of the revenue."

The postmaster general proposes that the lowest rate of letter postage (which, according to the reduction here suggested, would be 3 cents) should be imposed on drop letters.

This proposition appears to me to be reasonable; and would, in combination with the prepayment system, withdraw these letters from their present course, as far as their now increased number is the effect of the expresses. Their present annual number is estimated in the report last named, at 1,026,504. On every one of those which would hereafter pass through the regular mails, the department would receive an average of 4 cents more than it does at present; while each of those which would remain "drop letters," would contribute 2 cents additional. This would add at least $20,000 to the revenue.

Justice to the department would seem to require that an extra charge of 2 cents should be imposed on every letter which has been advertised, to defray their extra cost. From an authentic statement, already quoted, I set down the amount which would be thus added to the revenue at not less than $60,000.

To recapitulate—by these modifications of the tariff I have proposed, there would be added to the revenue—

From dead letters, by the prepayment system,.....	$46,200
From "drop letters," by the charge of 3 cents,.....	20,000
From the extra charge on advertised letters,.....	60,000
Making a total addition to the revenue,.....	$126,200
This will reduce my former estimated deficit to.....	850,333
The estimated deficit, without these modifications, being....	$976,533

To meet the deficit the first year after the reduction, I ask for no appropriation from the treasury to the *aid* of the department: I ask only for the just payment to the department, from the public funds, of the expense of the $900,000 to which it has been this year subjected on account of the franking privilege—a privilege (whatever might be said of it) that was granted by Congress for the benefit, not of letter-writers only, but the entire public;—and, for every year afterwards, the actual cost of the free letters carried by the mails during the preceding fiscal year; their cost being calculated at the same rates as other letters. I take this stand, solely because I consider my estimate a very safe one, and likely to produce, rather than a deficit, a surplus of nearly $50,000. For, if we suppose the real cost of the franked matter to have been always in the same proportion to the real cost of paid matter, it will be found that the latter

has, since the organization of the department, contributed to the legitimate expenses of the government about *seventeen millions* of dollars; and, this being the case, we might surely stretch a point to effect such a permanent public good. Speaking of the new English system, I find it said in the report of the postmaster general, December 3d, 1842, "it is impossible to doubt that the domestic, social, moral, and commercial effects of the change have been as extensive as they are beneficial—as productive of public advantage as they have been conducive to individual happiness."

But as a call for assistance from the treasury, even on this strong ground, would be a dangerous precedent, I should be reluctant to recommend any tariff which would require it. Happily for us, it is not necessary.

I have already stated that the first year after the adoption of the pre-payment system, the paid letters in the London general post were 91 per cent of the entire number; the unpaid letters, of course, being 9 per cent. Now, my estimates having been formed on the number of letters *delivered* —if unpaid letters be charged at double rates, it is plain that, to find the true revenue, there should be 9 per cent added to my former estimate of the revenue. This per centage will produce the additional sum of $267,910, so that, for the first year after the reduction of postage, there would be an actual surplus revenue of over $300,000.

If we suppose the number of free letters to remain the same, their proportional cost under my proposed tariff will be found to be $363,626.

The following table exhibits the gross revenue, according to the foregoing estimates, for the first three years after the adoption of the reduced rates. The column marked P, expresses the sums that would be added to the revenue by the adoption of the pre-payment system, supposing that, of all the chargeable letters delivered, there were for the first year 9 per cent not pre-paid, for the second year 6 per cent, and for the third year only 3 per cent.

		Annual incr.	(P.)	Free letters.	Drop letters, &c.	Total revenue.	Surplus.
1st year,	$2,976,786	.....	$267,910	$900,000	$126,200	$4,270,896	$317,577
2d "	2,976,786	$446,518	205,398	363,626	126,200	4,118,528	165,209
3d "	3,423,304	513,495	118,104	363,626	126,200	4,544,729	591,520

It will be remembered that these estimates have all been founded on the returns of the year 1842, in which year the greatest amount for letter postage was received; and that in that year the number of chargeable letters delivered at the several rates of postage, continued in the same proportion as in 1836. This I consider the only proper foundation whereon to base estimates of the effects of a tariff sufficiently reduced as to destroy the influence of the expresses; and to have been properly adopted by the postmaster general himself in his report, dated January 5, 1843; though I do not for a moment suppose but that the *actual* number of letters in 1842 was in a very different proportion from my estimate, for in that year the expresses had already exerted a most disturbing influence. It will be observed, also, that they rest on the supposition that the franking privilege, the expense of transportation, and *the compensation to deputy postmasters*, will remain the same.

In order that no objection may remain unanswered, let us now examine the late report of the postmaster general, dated January 16, 1844.

"From the returns as made for the month of October, 1843, estimating the same amount of mail matter for each month in the year, it appears

(A) that 4,126,692 letters rated at 6 cents, 5,553,924 letters rated at 10 cents, 4,710,900 rated at 12½ cents, 5,369,556 letters rated at 18¾ cents, and 4,506,480 letters rated at 25 cents, (total letters chargeable with postage, 24,267,552) pass through the mails in each year; from which should be deducted the number of dead letters returned to the general post-office. This number may be stated at not less than 1,200,000." And the gross number of letters received at the post-offices which failed to make returns, he estimates in the same manner to be 747,792. To find, therefore, the true number (D) of chargeable letters *delivered* at the different rates, I shall add this number (B) when divided in the ratio of the letters received, and then deduct the 1,200,000 dead letters (C) when divided in the same manner, thus:—

(A.)	(B.)	(C.)	(D.)			
4,126,692	127,303	204,287	4,049,708	a 6	cents,	$242,982 48
5,553,924	171,074	274,526	5,450,472	a 10	"	545,047 20
4,710,900	145,182	232,976	4,623,106	a 12½	"	577,888 25
5,369,556	165,525	265,623	5,269,458	a 18¾	"	988,023 38
4,506,480	138,708	222,588	4,422,600	a 25	"	1,105,650 00
24,267,552	747,792	1,200,000	23,815,344	a 14½	"	$3,459,591 31

If the month of October (the fourth month in the fiscal year) is a correct monthly average, it thus appears that, during the current fiscal year, 23,815,344 chargeable letters will be delivered from the post-office, at an average of 14½ cents each, producing a revenue of $3,459,591, a sum $253,195 less than the similar revenue of the year ending June 30, 1843; the revenue of which year was also less than the revenue from letters in the fiscal year preceding by over $240,000. The average rate of each *single* letter (for the number of letters here estimated are stated in the report to be *single* letters) is 2 cents greater than our estimated average of England, before the reduction, so that it can no longer be said that the English postage was "the heaviest in the world; in comparison with which the so much complained of American postage is but a mite."—[*Madisonian of Feb.* 3, 1844.]

If we compare the number of letters here estimated for the current year with the number that was delivered in 1836, we shall have a most convincing argument in favor of reduced rates. To make the comparison properly, I set down the number of chargeable letters that should have been delivered in 1836, to produce the estimated revenue therefrom in 1844, viz:—$3,459,591.

1836.	1844.	Increase.	Per cent.	Decrease.	Per cent.
6,144,925	4,049,708	.....	.....	2,095,217	34+
9,217,377	5,450,472	.....	.....	3,766,905	40¾+
6,144,925	4,623,106	.....	.....	1,521,819	24¾+
4,604,589	5,269,458	664,869	10+	.....	.....
2,150,721	4,422,600	2,271,879	105¼+	.....	.....

These results are exactly such as we expected. The letters rated at 25 cents, which are still but little affected by the expresses, have increased 105 per cent, which is the ordinary increase in course of time, as may be seen by comparing the gross postage income in 1836, namely $3,398,455, with the gross postage income in 1828, which was $1,664,759. And if we suppose that, in the absence of the expresses, the letters at the other rates would have increased in the same proportion, say 100 per cent, the

revenue from letters in 1844 would be exactly $6,000,000, a sum exceeding the probable actual revenue by $2,540,000: a supposition not so very unlikely when we are told that the letters carried by the expresses for a single commercial house in New York, to and from Boston only, would, if carried by the mails, cost $3,000 annually.

This shows conclusively, the safety of my estimated ratio of increase in the number of letters; it having been based on the increase of letters in the United Kingdom, where expresses had no existence, and where the laws effectually compelled all letters to be carried by the mails.

The greatest opposition to a reduction of letter postage comes from deputy postmasters, whose compensation would thereby be reduced. To remedy this, if necessary, I would propose that they should be allowed the same per centage on *free* letters as if they were charged at the ordinary rates; a proposition not unjust, when we consider that, if my views be entertained, they will be subjected to the extra trouble of calculating the postage of free matter at the same rates as other matter. By this measure their compensation will, even for the first year after the reduction, be very nearly the same as at present.

As some check to the abuse of the franking privilege, provision might be made that whoever might receive a franked letter or package, should pay therefor to the postmaster who delivers it, the 2 cents now paid him by the department, unless the said 2 cents may have been pre-paid. This small charge would relieve the department of a burden, amounting, at the lowest estimate, to $60,000. A proposition has been made to me by a distinguished member of the senate, that the franking privilege on printed matter should be entirely abolished. This measure would effectually "tend to arrest the concentration at the seat of government of those influences which, for some time past, appear to have directed and controlled the politics of the country, and to add to that stimulus which aggravates political excitements."

The penal laws seem, to a considerable extent, to have been engrafted on our statutes, from the universal example of foreign countries. We seem to have overlooked the fact that, in these countries, a fraud against the post-office is a fraud against the national revenue; while, in this country, the department seeks only to sustain itself by the collection of a sum equal to its current expenses. Inasmuch, therefore, as they relate to the transportation of printed matter otherwise than through the mails, newspapers and magazines being articles of merchandise, they certainly should be abolished.

I have no doubt but the postage of printed matter might be advantageously reduced. My examination, however, furnishes no data whereby to calculate the amount. All distinction in the rates for printed matter should be abolished, and the rates equalized according to size or weight.

AMERICAN MANUFACTURES IN CANADA.

The Toronto Herald says, the imports from the United States into the port of Toronto, from the 6th to the 25th of July, were 930 packages, the duties on which will amount to between £750 and £800. Some cotton fabrics of the United States have been imported, and this is probably a trade that will increase, unless the Provincial Parliament augment the duty on the present rates. The coarser cotton goods of the United States are likely to rival the manufacture of Great Britain in this market.

ART. VI.—TONNAGE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

OUR attention has been called to an expression in an article furnished by a correspondent in the November number of this Magazine, Vol. 9, page 445, on "our Shipping," where it is stated as a "fact, that, owing to circumstances connected with our treaties, it is found that the commerce, both to and from our own country, is carried on in a good measure by British ships." This is a great mistake, and should have been corrected before. The fact is, that in the year 1842, by official reports, the commerce to our country, or, in other words, the imports, was carried on near 800 per cent more in American ships than in British and all other foreign ships united; and the commerce from our country, or its exports, was carried on near three hundred and fifty per cent more in American ships.* The change has been less in ten years than most imagine. Thus, in 1830, our imports and exports in American vessels were $129,918,457; but in British and other foreign vessels but $14,807,971; and in 1840, in American vessels, $198,424,609; but in British and all others, only $40,802,856.

We find in a speech of the Hon. Levi Woodbury, of New Hampshire, on "the state of our tonnage, freights and commerce with foreign powers," delivered in the senate of the United States, April 14, 1842, a number of tables, compiled by that gentleman from the reports of the secretary of the treasury, exposing the error into which our correspondent has fallen, viz: "that *our commerce is carried on in British ships.*" In the speech alluded to, Mr. Woodbury shows clearly, from official documents, that the tonnage coming from the northern British provinces, by short voyages, and often with little beside passengers, is made to appear ten or eleven times as great as it really is in quantity, so far as employed in carrying produce and merchandise. We subjoin two tables from the appendix to Mr. Woodbury's speech, which will, we trust, as they are compiled from official documents, by the former secretary of the treasury, set history right on this subject:—

1.—*Tonnage, American and Foreign, clearing for foreign ports, from all the United States, and several separate States.*

		1820.	1830.	1840.
1.	Tonnage clearing in all our for'gn trade—American,	†604,947	971,160	1,647,009
	" not American,	100,541	133,436	712,363
2.	" from Maine—American,	‡111,854	91,629	82,534
3.	" from Maine—not American,	520	165	74,619
	" from Massachusetts—American,	129,741	148,124	187,995
	" in vessels not American,	1,170	5,176	58,765
4.	" from four great southern p'ts—American,	‡140,122	231,152	494,191
	" from them—not American,	55,514	70,266	165,594
5.	" cleared to England and dependencies—American,	‡315,418	343,299	868,520
	" to them—not American,	31,136	72,589	529,213
6.	" clearing to England—American,	128,729	192,714	388,512
	" not American,	19,546	58,589	129,213
7.	" clearing to Brit. W. Indies—American,	22,083	2,395	78,224
	" not American,	.....	.....	.....
8.	" to Brit. North Am. colonies—American,	112,223	117,171	357,073
	" not American,	3,169	14,267	401,805

* See Reports of the Secretary of Treasury for Statistics of Commerce in 1842.

† In 1822, ‡ In 1821.

1.—*Tonnage, American and Foreign, clearing for foreign ports, from all the United States, and several separate States*—Continued.

		1830.	1830.	1840.
9.	Tonnage to New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, not including Canada—American,.....	501	1,523	72,000
	" to same—not American,.....	none.	none.	153,412
10.	" clearing to Canadas—American,.....	none sep.	none sep.	300,000
	" not American,.....	none sep.	none sep.	234,522
11.	" clearing to Hanse Towns—American,...	17,308	14,728	17,840
	" not American,.....	4,091	10,262	42,324
12.	" clearing to Danish and Swedish West Indies—American vessels,.....	76,073	72,495	29,903
	" in vessels not American,.....	1,496	1,833	1,197
13.	" clearing in all our foreign trade—American, 1834,.....			1,074,670
	" not American,.....			568,052
14.	" clearing from Maine—American, 1833,.....			65,488
	" not American,.....			98,735
15.	" clearing from Massachusetts—American,.....			183,631
	" not American,.....			31,299
16.	" clearing from four great southern ports—American, 1832,.....			197,673
	" not American,.....			135,497

2.—*Freights in American and Foreign bottoms, from all the United States, and with some other powers separately.*

	1820.	1830.	1840.
1. All exports and imports in Am. vessels,	*$137,679,899	$129,918,457	$198,424,609
" " for. "	17,701,923	14,807,971	40,802,856
2. All exports and imports to Great Britain and depend., in Am. vessels,...	†41,676,552	48,900,330	88,192,344
All exports and imports in those not American,.....	10,967,036	9,552,535	21,359,423
3. Exports of domestic origin to G. Britain and depend., in Am. vessels,...	†18,449,618	23,741,505	51,099,758
Exports of domestic origin to Great Britain and her dependencies, in vessels not American,.....	6,802,718	5,965,563	13,214,299
4. Exports of domestic origin to England alone, in American vessels,.....	13,423,452	18,762,926	41,904,969
Exports of domestic origin to England alone, in vessels not American,....	5,544,733	5,010,094	10,046,808
5. Exports of domestic origin to British Am. colonies, in American vessels,	1,959,271	3,581,727	4,124,157
Exports of domestic origin to Br. Am. colonies, in vessels not American,..	50,065	68,304	1,771,809
6. Imports from British American colonies, in American vessels,.....	459,490	645,937	1,431,264
Imports from British American colonies, in vessels not American,.....	31,214	4,366	576,503
7. All exports and imports with Hanse Towns, in American vessels,.....	†2,637,369	2,728,810	1,451,777
All exports and imports with Hanse Towns, in vessels not American,...	485,330	1,469,348	5,268,177
8. All exports from Massachusetts, in American vessels,.....	†12,442,474	7,115,047	9,231,798
All exports from Massachusetts, in vessels not American,.....	42,297	98,147	954,533
9. All imports into Massachusetts, in American vessels,.....	14,647,778	10,345,947	15,813,560
All imports into Massachusetts, in vessels not American,.....	178,954	107,597	700,298

* In 1822. † In 1821

2.—Freights in American and Foreign bottoms, from all the United States, and with some other powers separately—Continued.

	1820.	1830.	1840.
10. Exports, domestic, from Massachusetts, in American vessels,.....	3,632,985	3,548,910	5,504,441
Exports, domestic, from Massachusetts, in vessels not American,.....	5,662	51,042	763,717
11. Exports from Maine, in American vessels,.....	*1,043,949	640,146	959,903
Exports from Maine, in vessels not American,.....	7,499	3,289	50,000
12. Imports into Maine, in Am. vessels,..	*972,795	555,036	504,183
" in for. "	7,499	17,630	124,475
13. Exports of domestic origin from four great southern ports, in Am. vessels,	*12,490,286	21,966,327	49,396,959
Exports of domestic origin, from four great southern ports, in vessels not American,.....	7,422,783	6,285,685	13,299,769

NOTE.—All our exports and imports in 1832, in American vessels, were $137,124,119; in foreign ones, about $27,000,0000. * In 1821.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

SINCE our last number, the state of money affairs has undergone a considerable change. The elements then in motion to produce an increased demand for money, we pointed out. These grew mainly out of the peculiar position of the cotton crop, and the raging speculation which, in our number for September, we alluded to as likely to take place As the crop came gradually forward, affording each day new evidence of a great falling off in the quantity produced, the movement was greatly accelerated. The greatest efforts were made to hold the cotton here; and, by artificially increasing the actual scarcity in England, force up prices rapidly. The situation of the crop is now as follows, as compared with the previous years:—

RECEIPTS, STOCKS, AND EXPORTS OF COTTON IN THE UNITED STATES, FROM SEPT. 1 TO DATE.

	1842. Bales.	1843. Bales.	1844. Bales.	DEC. IN 1844 Bales.
Receipts,.....	906,544	1,333,801	1,008,039	325,762
Exports to Great Britain,.....	321,072	592,769	252,396	340,373
" France,.....	169,858	173,851	102,868	70,983
Total exports,.....	537,329	835,359	374,583	460,776
Stock,.....	305,218	371,559	510,992	.....

The decrease of exports to Great Britain has been 340,373 bales, and the total decrease is 460,776 bales, worth $13,823,186. This represents the sum by which the amount of bills has been diminished this year from last. At the same time, the stock on hand has been increased 139,433 bales, which is held here at high prices, and is worth $5,577,320. The stock now held is worth $20,439,680, against a value for that of last year of $11,146,770. Hence, there is a difference of $23,116,190 between the amount of money supplied by cotton sold last year, and the amount required to hold it this. This is a vast sum of money; and the fact that it has been applied to this cotton movement without producing other effects upon the money market than a temporary rise in the value of money, to 6 a 7 on stock loans, about the 1st of February, when the New York banks were making their returns, is an evidence not only of the small amount of business doing, compared with former years, but also of the small disposition among regular dealers to borrow money for the conduct of their business. At the close of Janu.

ary, considerable speculation had been induced in stocks by the abundance of money, among people of comparatively small means. Hence the demand for money, from that source, was large; and the movement of the banks to contract, caused high rates to be paid for money to "carry" stocks, rather than have them sacrificed. The moment this pressure was passed, or relieved by supplies derived from neighboring cities, the rate of money fell back to 4 per cent for choice lines of discount, and 4½ a 5 on stocks. In foreign bills, there has been but little alteration. The rate has fluctuated between 9 and 9¼, the latter rate with difficulty obtained. The supply, owing to the limited exports of cotton, was small; and the leading houses furnished the market at 9¼ a 9½. The news from Liverpool to the 13th, however, bringing advices of a farther rise in cotton, and from New Orleans to the 3d of February, that English buyers of cotton were drawing at sixty days, induced an immediate disposition to ship, to take advantage of the then low freights, high rates of bills, and relieve the money-market. Since then, bills have been falling, and are dull at 8¾ a 9¼, and money abundant.

The state of the English markets is such as to induce hopes of a most extensive trade for the coming year. The price of food is cheap; money abundant, at 1½ a 2 per cent; the India and China markets for British goods rapidly increasing, and those in Europe showing better features. Under the present system of money affairs in England, the price of food is an important element in the consideration of the home market for manufactures. In illustration of this fact, we will state that the usual estimates of the consumption of grain in England, of all sorts, is 74,281,250 quarters, or 594,250,000 bushels. The following will show the money required for the purchase of this food, according to the average prices of four successive years:—

CONSUMPTION AND VALUE OF GRAIN IN GREAT BRITAIN IN FOUR YEARS.

	Consumption.	1835.			1837.			1839.		
	Quarters.	Price.		Value.	Price.		Value.	Price.		Value.
		s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£
Wheat,....	22,940,000	39	4	45,115,333	55	10	64,040,833	70	6	80,863,500
Oats,.....	33,652,500	22	0	37,017,750	23	1	38,840,593	26	6	44,589,562
Barley,....	12,670,000	29	11	18,952,208	30	4	19,216,166	39	1	24,759,291
Rye,.....	1,300,000	30	4	1,971,666	34	9	2,258,750	34	9	2,258,750
Beans and peas,....	3,718,750	36	8	6,817,708	38	.	7,065,625	41	2	7,654,427
Total,...	74,281,250			£109,874,666			£131,421,968			£160,125,010

The year 1835 was a year of prosperity. In 1837, there was a sum equal to £21,547,302 more money required to be taken from the earnings of the people, to buy bread, than in 1835. The deficit harvest of 1838 sent the prices up in 1839 immensely, and the aggregate value of bread consumed was swollen to £160,125,010, or £50,250,000 in excess of that of 1835. This immense sum was turned from the purchase of manufactured goods, to be absorbed in food. The population was considerably increased in these four years—we make no allowance for increased quantity consumed on that account. The year 1839 was one of unparalleled distress; and we may estimate its magnitude when we remember that the whole declared value of British goods exported in 1842, was but £51,634,623. Hence, by the rise in bread, a sum equal to the annihilation of the whole export trade was taken from the home demand. In the fall of that year, (1839,) the consequence of that distress was evinced in the following expressive paragraph from the Paris "Commerce," in October, 1839:—

"A meeting of bankers was held on Friday, at Messieurs Hottinguer's, for the purpose of deciding on the expediency of renewing the operation of the 50,000,000 francs loaned to the Bank of England, when the bills should become due. The decision was favorable to the renewal; it being objected that, if the Bank of England were called upon to reimburse those bills, the establishment would be obliged to suspend payment in specie."

The fate of the English bank, and of the paper system of Great Britain, with all the fearful consequences attendant upon its overthrow, hung upon the decision of a few Parisian bankers. What a commentary is this upon the harmonizing influence of extended commerce! From that time to the present, the bank has been regaining its strength; and modified duties upon foreign provisions, and better harvests at home, have all tended to reduce the prices of food, and thereby to improve the internal trade of the country. The present prices, as compared with those above, are as follows:—

	Consumption. *Quarters.*	Price. *s.*	Value. *£*
Wheat,	22,940,000	52	51,194,000
Oats,	33,652,500	18	31,973,675
Barley,	12,670,000	27	17,004,500
Rye,	1,300,000	28	1,820,000
Beans,	3,718,750	28	5,156,250
Total,	74,281,250		£107,148,425

Here is a sum equal to £52,976,906 more means applicable to the home trade in manufactures, than was the case in 1839. Already the influence of this state of affairs is beginning to be perceptible in the increase of revenue; and, as the year advances, will be still more so. The returns of the revenue of the kingdom, for the years ending January 5, have been as follows:—

REVENUE OF GREAT BRITAIN FOR THE QUARTERS AND YEARS ENDING JANUARY 5TH.

	Quarters.		Years.	
	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
Customs,	£4,214,089	£4,766,968	£19,075,310	£19,073,219
Excise,	3,022,008	3,030,771	11,407,304	11,794,807
Stamps,	1,561,754	1,523,653	6,491,100	6,426,155
Taxes,	1,886,163	1,868,857	4,273,592	4,190,486
Property tax,	257,212	454,415	571,056	5,249,260
Post-office,	141,000	143,000	605,000	592,000
Crown lands,	40,000	30,000	133,000	117,500
Miscellaneous,	21,537	11,917	579,411	1,634,741
Total ord. revenue,	£11,143,763	£11,829,581	£43,135,773	£49,078,168
Imperial and other money,	107,097	50,136	511,411	168,528
Rep. of advances,	235,247	332,060	682,681	825,247
Total income,	£11,486,107	£12,211,777	£44,329,865	£50,071,943

The customs for the last quarter, it will be observed, show a large increase. For the year, it is not so apparent; because, in the former year, a large amount, derived from imported grain, was not received this. Hence, the consumption of other dutiable goods was the greater. The excise duties, which are taxes upon English produce, show a great and flattering increase; and the result was, that the year's revenue showed a surplus of more than £900,000, of which one-fourth was applied to the extinguishment of the national debt—an event which had not previously transpired in many years.

The increased consumption of goods favors, in an eminent degree, the demand for American raw produce; more especially as the superfluity of money in England will not, as in former years, find vent in foreign stock loans. In the two former periods of great abundance of money, the redundant capital of Britain found employment in foreign stocks, and in great joint stock company speculations at home. This is a result seemingly inevitable, viz: that money, like every other commodity, will go from a country where it is cheap to one where it will pay a better profit. The above table shows that when a rise in food takes place, that fact of itself causes a demand for money at home; which, when released from that employment by a fall in prices, must seek other directions. This, in an eminent degree, occurred in 1825 and 1838. In the former period,

the gambling in stocks reached a prodigious amount, and is arrived at with a considerable degree of accuracy by parliamentary returns. Previous to the year 1824, the following companies were instituted; and most of them are yet in existence, paying fair profits:—

COMPANIES FORMED IN ENGLAND PRIOR TO 1824.

Companies.	No.	Shares.	Capital.	Companies.	No.	Shares.	Capital.
Canal,.....	63	175,374	£12,902,096	Roads,.....	7	7,472	494,969
Docks,.....	7	57,582	6,164,590	Miscellaneous,	7	17,580	1,530,000
Insurance,.....	25	329,841	20,488,948				
Waterworks,..	16	39,760	2,973,170	Total,.....	156	764,534	£47,936,486
Bridges,.....	4	31,731	2,452,017				$239,682,430
Gas,.....	27	35,194	1,630,700				

In 1824–25, the rage for stock-gambling was excessive, and resulted in the projection of the following companies:—

COMPANIES PROJECTED IN 1824–25.

Companies.	No.	No. shares.	Capital.
Mining,.....	74	537,200	£38,370,000
Gas,.....	29	203,940	12,077,000
Insurance,.....	20	651,000	35,820,000
Investment,.....	28	686,500	52,600,000
Canal and Railroad,.....	54	542,210	44,051,000
Steam,.....	67	125,120	8,555,500
Trading,.....	11	85,000	10,450,000
Building,.....	26	164,900	13,781,000
Provision,.....	23	674,000	8,360,600
Miscellaneous,.....	292	2,294,350	148,109,600
Total,.....	624	5,294,220	£372,173,100
			$1,860,865,500

Most of these miscellaneous companies are South American, East Indian, colonial, &c. Since 1824, companies requiring £800,000,000 have been projected in this manner by parliamentary agents and speculators. Of all this, about £80,000,000 has been actually laid out, of which £60,000,000 has been railroads. In those years, the loans of foreign government stocks amounted to £53,000,000, of which more than one-half has been lost by failures of the governments. This was the experience of British capitalists when money become so abundant in 1835. At that time, the United States began to contract loans; and the utmost confidence being felt in the honor of the Anglo-Saxon race, such a vent for money was eagerly availed of. The feeling prevalent at that time is expressed in the following paragraph from an influential London journal:—

"Seeing, therefore, that money will find its way from countries where it is of low value, into countries where it is of high value, and the longer we live the more facile and extensive will be the operations in this kind of business, what description of foreign securities would, when sold in the English stock market, result in the most beneficial consequences to the permanent productive interests of England? We say, without hesitation, but on very mature reflection, those of the great American republic—first, because property is better secured and more firmly fenced in, not only by the operation of the English law engrafted on their institutions, but by a general feeling of commendable pride pervading all grades of society, to maintain the honor of the nation."

Then follow other reasons, showing the firm reliance then entertained in the good faith of the American character. This feeling led to the investment of some $200,000,000 in American securities; and the rise of the price of bread, in 1837, developed those distresses which resulted in the failure of many of our states. This shock has been almost fatal to British confidence in foreign securities; and the question now is, what direction will the masses of money accumulated in London find employment? The late events in China and India have opened a vast field of enterprise; and it is not unlikely that large amounts of capital will be applied to the development of new markets, in that quar-

ter of the world, for British goods—an effect which, for the present, is likely to promote the sale of American products in Britain. Of cotton goods, particularly, the export to China, during the past year, has been large.

	White cottons.	Colored.	Total.
1843—11 months exp. to India and China,...yds.	179,208,183	21,212,134	200,420,317
1842— " " " "	125,302,943	19,483,329	144,786,272
Increase,.....yds.	53,905,240	1,729,805	55,634,045

This increased export to Asia, in eleven months, is 300 per cent more than the entire export of cottons to the United States in a whole year—1841—a fact which develops the capacity of those markets to consume English goods.

The abundant money of England cannot again find employment in American securities, until some steps have been taken by the delinquent states towards the discharge of the claims upon them. Although money in England is plenty at 1½ a 2 per cent, and in this country at 4 a 5 per cent., yet 6 per cent dividend-paying stocks are under par.

PRICES OF STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

	Rate.	Redeemable.	April, 1843.	October.	February.
United States,.....	5½	1844	... a ...	101 a ...	... a 102
"	6	1844	... a ...	102¾ a 102½	102½ a 102¾
"	6	1862	112 a 113	114¼ a 115½	115½ a 115¾
"	5	1853	... a ...	103 a 103¼	103 a 104
New York,.....	7	1848–49	105 a 106	107 a 108	107½ a 108¼
"	6	1850–54–60	103 a 105	107 a 107½	106 a 109
"	6	1861–62–67	103 a 105	107 a 107½	107½ a 108
"	5½	1860–61–65	97 a 98	102 a 102½	103½ a 104
"	5	1845	97 a 98	... a 100	100½ a 101
"	5	1846–7–8–9	... a ...	99 a 100	100 a 101¼
"	5	1850–51–57	... a ...	99 a 100	101 a 102¼
"	5	1855–58	93 a 94	98 a 99	101¾ a 102¼
"	5	1859–60–61	94 a 95	99 a 99	100 a 101
"	4½	1849–58	87 a 88	91 a 93	92 a 98
Ohio,.....	6	1850	69 a 70	94½ a 94¾	95¾ a 97
"	6	1856–60	67 a 68	95 a 95½	97 a 98¾
"	5	1850–56	54 a 55	82½ a 83	92 a 99
Kentucky,.....	6	.....	89 a 89½	97½ a 98	102½ a 102¾
Illinois,.....	6	1870	23 a 23½	35¼ a 36½	42½ a 42½
Indiana,.....	5	25 years.	25 a 26	35 a 35¾	34 a 37
Arkansas,.....	6	.....	28½ a 30	38 a 45	57 a 60
Alabama,.....	6	.....	50 a 60	60 a 67	87 a 92
"	5	.....	... a ...	58 a 60	80 a 82
Pennsylvania,.....	5	.....	41 a 42	61 a 61¼	... a 66¼
Tennessee,.....	6	.....	... a ...	90 a 92	100 a 102
New York city,.....	7	1857	107 a 110	111 a 112	114 a ....
"	7	1852	106 a 108	107 a 108	111 a 112
"	5	1850	94 a 95	99 a 99½	... a 100
"	5	1858–70	94 a 95	99½ a 100	99½ a 100

It is no doubt true that one great reason for this low price of stock is the great amount floating upon the market; but that, in its turn, is traceable to the fact that, instead of any continued absorption of permanent investments of the stockholders in former years, there has been rather a disposition, on the part of cautious capitalists, to get clear of them. Hence, the quantity in the hands of speculators increases, rather than otherwise. The first element in the accumulation of means, in this country, is a rise in agricultural produce, of which the abundance this year has by far exceeded all precedent. The following is a table of the quantities arrived at tide-water, on the Hudson river, for three seasons:—

PRODUCE ARRIVED ON THE HUDSON, VIA THE CANAL.

	1841. Quantity.	1842. Quantity.	1843. Quantity.
The Forest—			
Furs and peltry,.....lbs.	1,180,000	358,700	635,809
Boards and scantling,.....feet	177,720,349	150,657,900	177,402,600
Shingles,.....M.	46,385	36,765	29,334,485
Timber,.....feet	1,028,576	361,589	586,013
Staves,.....No.	110,542,839	55,268,500	28,385
Wood,.....cords	21,408	17,280	17,596
Ashes,.....bbls.	43,093	44,824	77,739
Agriculture—			
Pork,.....bbls.	115,150	79,235	63,777
Beef,.....	18,113	21,437	47,467
Cheese,.....lbs.	14,171,081	19,004,613	24,336,260
Butter and lard,.....	16,157,653	19,182,930	24,215,700
Wool,.....	3,617,075	3,255,148	6,216,400
Flour,.....bbls.	1,667,492	1,577.555	2,069,095
Wheat,.....bush.	781,055	928,347	758,597
Rye,.....	8,070	32,224	46,572
Corn,.....	119,762	366,111	184,016
Barley,.....	121,010	522,993	1,168,153
Other grain,.....	663,375	1,212,517	543,956
Bran and shipstuff,.....	556,013	789,814	702,654
Peas and beans,.....	39,290	23,732	14,056
Potatoes,.....	32,397	23,664	22,883
Dried fruit,.....lbs.	498,697	1,141,068	671,000
Cotton,.....	296,842	49,600	61,000
Tobacco,.....	850,702	1.117,900	1,860,000
Clover and grass-seed,.....	3,571,334	2,411,930	4,343,300
Flaxseed,.....	966,263	2,096,360	1,206,900
Hops,.....	298,096	743,800	835,800
Manufactures—			
Domestic spirits,.....gallons	2,022,770	711,403	863,255
Leather,.....lbs.	1,856,900	2,015,050	1,684,300
Furniture,.....tons	769	684	924
Bar and pig lead,.....	130	641	954
Pig iron,.....	2,018	2,788	2,065
Iron-ware,.....	445	2,867	3,735
Domestic woollens,.....	212	206	238
Domestic cottons,.....	574	844	975
Salt,.....	2,729	3,651	15,506
Merchandise,.....	155	185	201
Other Articles—			
Stone, lime, and clay,.....tons	12,863	10,645	13,507
Gypsum,.....	60	370	949
Mineral coal,.....	8,045	8,816	6,528
Sundries,.....	15,985	.....	23,773
The aggregates were as follows:—			
Forest,.....tons	449,095	321,480	416,153
Agriculture,.....	270,240	293,177	343,582
Manufactures,.....	17,891	16,015	29,493
Other articles,.....	36,953	35,769	44,854
Merchandise,.....	155	185	201
Total,.....	774,334	666,226	834,283
Value,.....	$27,225,322	$22,751,013	$28,376,599

PROPERTY AND VALUE CLEARED AT ALBANY AND TROY, ON THE ERIE AND CHAMPLAIN CANALS.

Cleared boats,.....	.....	.....	16,413
" tons,.....	162,715	123,294	165,044
" value,.....	.....	$37,265,595	$42,258,488
Tons arrived and cleared,.....	837,049	789,920	999,327
Value "	.....	$60,016,608	$70,634,087

The progress of business is here very great, particularly in agricultural products, of which the quantities have enormously increased. The value has, however, not increased in proportion to the quantity. The tonnage and value of agriculture in each year was as follows:—

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE.

Years.	Tons.	Value.	Per ton.
1843,.....	343,582	$18,121,927	$52 80
1842,.....	293,177	15,662,889	53 50
1841,.....	270,240	16,994,948	70 75

The valuations are those of the prices in Albany, at the time of their arrival. It will be observed that the decline in aggregate value is about 30 per cent since 1841, which was a year of comparatively good business. This large decline in the money value of that which constitutes the chief means of the people of the United States, is an insuperable bar to an extended business, more especially when we consider the contracted state of bank credits.

The leading features of the banks of New York state have been as follows for a series of years, and for the last three quarterly returns:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK STATE.

Jan'ry,	Capital. *Dollars.*	Loans. *Dollars.*	Stocks. *Dollars.*	Specie. *Dollars.*	Bal. due b'ks. *Dollars.*	Circulation. *Dollars.*	Deposits. *Dollars.*
1831,	27,555,264	57,689,704	395,809	2,657,503	4,310,936	17,820,408	19,119,338
1836,	31,281,461	72,826,111	803,159	6,224,646	3,892,314	21,127,927	20,088,685
1837,	37,101,460	79,313,188	1,794,152	6,557,020	2,630,569	24,198,000	30,883,179
1838,	36,611,460	60,999,770	2,795,207	4,139,732	2,025,292	12,460,652	15,221,860
1839,	36,801,460	68,300,486	911,623	9,355,495	1,222,158	19,373,149	18,370,044
1840,	52,028,781	67,057,067	5,464,120	7,000,529	1,031,419	14,220,304	20,051,234
1841,	51,630,280	69,230,130	6,738,000	6,536,240	1,302,000	18,456,230	20,678,279
1842,	44,310,000	56,380,073	10,291,239	5,329,857	883,099	13,949,504	17,063,774
1843,	43,950,137	52,348,467	12,446,087	8,477,076	7,771,112	12,031,871	19,100,415
August,							
1843,	43,019,577	58,593,081	12,320,987	14,091,779	10,611,940	14,520,843	24,679,230
November,							
1843,	43,369,152	61,534,129	11,665,311	11,502,789	4,941,076	17,213,101	27,387,160
February,							
1844,	43,649,887	65,418,762	11,052,458	10,086,542	5,343,347	16,335,401	29,026,415

Since the August return, some new banks, under the free law, have been organized; and the capital has therefore been enhanced. The deposits of the banks, as far as regards the United States funds, have varied as follows:—

Due United States by	August.	November.	February.
American Exchange Bank,.....	$265,102	$265,102	$119,280
Bank of America,.....	2,632,935	489,025	168,947
Merchants' Bank,.....	1,135,347	887,633	1,392,354
Total due United States,.....	$4,033,384	$1,641,760	$1,680,511

The deposits of the banks on individual account are very large, and have nearly reached the enormous amount at which they stood in 1837. It is to be observed, however, that in that year the deposits were a consequence of the enormous loans; and were, for the most part, applicable to the discharge of those loans, of which they were then in the proportion of 40 per cent. They are now in the proportion of 60 per cent, and are three times the amount of specie on hand; whereas, in 1837, they were four times the specie —a fact which shows the deposits now to be more of the character of actual money, deposited for want of investment; and not, as then, merely another phase of discounts, and applicable only to the discharge of prior loans.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

ANTIGUA COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS AND TARIFF OF DUTIES.

We give below, from an official source, an abstract of an act for laying a duty upon goods, wares, and merchandise, not being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, imported into the island of Antigua—passed February 16, 1843:—

1. Act to be in force from the 5th of April, 1843, to the 5th of April, 1845, and until the next meeting thereafter of the Council and Assembly of the island.
2. Levies duties as per schedule.
3. Importers not to land goods, without permit from the treasurer.
4. Masters of vessels required to present duplicate reports to the treasurer, answer questions, &c., before breaking bulk. Not complying, or making fraudulent reports, liable to penalty, on conviction.
5. Bill of entry to be delivered, containing name of importer, ship, and master thereof; quantity and quality of goods; marks, numbers, &c.
6. The importer being unable to make perfect entry, goods to be landed, and subjected to examination, in presence of the treasurer, and perfect entry to be made thereof within three days. In default of said entry, goods to be taken possession of by the treasurer; and, at the expiration of one month, perfect entry still defaulting, to be sold for the satisfaction of duties and other expenses.
7. Treasurer empowered to examine all persons, on oath, concerning importations of goods enumerated in schedule.
8. Treasurer empowered to seize goods enumerated in schedule, which may be imported and landed without permit, and, after ten days, to sell them at public auction. If claimed within ten days, and the landing thereof appears to have been without intention of fraud, goods to be restored, on payment of duties and charges. If not so appearing, goods to be condemned.
9. Drawback to be allowed on re-exportation of goods, the value whereof is not less than twenty-five pounds currency.
10. Goods can be warehoused in bond, on securities for treble the amount of duties payable thereon. When sold in bond, bond and securities to be renewed.
11. When the duties are payable on the value, the importer to give declaration thereof; said declaration to be verified by the treasurer, according to law.
12. Penalty to be imposed for making false declaration.
13. Duties to be paid in sterling money, or its equivalent in foreign coins. Imperial weights and measures to be used. Duties to be paid in proportion, for greater or less quantities.
14. Articles subject to duties under this act, exempt from other duties under any other act of the island.
15. Treasurer to receive 5 per cent on sums collected.
16. Deputy treasurer invested with the same powers as are conferred on the treasurer.

Table of Duties.

Articles.	Duties.
Ale, beer, cider, perry, and porter, in bulk,.....per tun	$7 20
" " " bottled, for every dozen quart-bottles,.....	12
Asses,.....per head	2 40
Beef and pork, salted or cured,.....per cwt.	1 44
Bread or biscuit,.....per 100 lbs.	48
Butter,.....per cwt.	1 92
Candles, wax, sperm, or composition,.....per 100 lbs.	60
Candles, tallow,..... "	96
Cheese,.....per cwt.	1 20
Flour, wheat,.....per barrel of 196 lbs.	72
Fish, dried, salted, or smoked,.....per cwt.	24
Fish, pickled,.....per bbl.	48
Hams, bacon, dried beef, and tongues, whether pickled or dried,.....per cwt.	1 92
Horses, mares, and geldings,.....per head	7 20

Table of Duties—Continued.

Articles.		Duties.
Lard,	per 100 lbs.	$0 96
Meal, or other flour, not wheat,	per barrel of 196 lbs.	60
" " "	per puncheon	2 40
Mules,	per head	4 80
Oil, blubber, fins, and skins, the produce of fish and creatures living in the sea,	for every £100 value	19 20
Peas, beans, calavances, barley, oats, Indian corn, and all other grain,	per bush.	6
Rice,	per cwt.	48
Soap,	"	96
Spirits, brandy, and all other spirits and cordials, (except rum,)	per gallon	48
Tobacco, leaf, unmanufactured,	for every £100 value	72 00
" manufactured,	" "	96 00
Wines, whether bottled or not,	" "	24 00
Wood—for every 1,000 feet of white pine or other lumber, by superficial measure of one inch thick,		3 36
Wood—for every 1,000 feet of pitch pine lumber, by superficial measure, of one inch thick,		5 04
Wood—shingles, cypress,	per 1,000	1 92
" shingles, white cedar, pine, and other shingles,	"	96
" wood hoops and hoop-poles,	"	1 20
" red or white oak staves and heading,	"	3 36

And after these rates, for any greater or less quantity, on such goods, respectively.

On all goods, wares, and merchandise, not hereinbefore enumerated, except such as are comprised or referred to in the subjoined table of exceptions, an ad valorem duty of 5 per cent.

Table of Exemptions.

Except the following, which shall not be liable to any duty under this act, viz: Coin, bullion, diamonds, neat cattle, and all other live stock not hereinbefore enumerated, fruit and vegetables, fresh hay and straw, cotton, wool, ice, fresh fish, fresh meat, turtle, poultry, salt, drugs, manures, and provisions and stores of every description, imported or supplied for the use of her majesty's land and sea forces.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF PORTS IN CUBA.

The following orders, making Cardenas, Mariel, and Sagua La Grande, in Cuba, ports of entry on certain conditions, and relating to exports and tonnage duties in ports of the island, have been officially communicated to the department of state, and are published under date, Washington, Jan. 18, 1844, for the benefit of those whom it may concern:—

"By virtue of the Royal order, in concurrence with their excellencies, the captain general and secretary of the royal treasury of this island, in reference to a proposition considered by the comptrollers thereof, and with a view to open new avenues to the agriculture and commerce of the country, and to facilitate the exportation of its productions, as a provisional measure, subject to such alterations as may be suggested by experience, it has been ordered, that Cardenas, Mariel, and Sagua La Grande be ports of entry from the first of January next, on the following conditions:—

Privileges for the ports of Mariel and Cardenas—

1st. Spanish vessels from Spanish ports may enter at said ports, discharge their cargoes, and load with produce, according to regulations now in force.

2d. Vessels of any nations whatever will be admitted in ballast, to load with sugar and other productions.

3d. Spanish and foreign vessels from foreign ports will be admitted with the following articles, viz: joist, boards, plank, staves, hoops, empty hogsheads, hogshead heading and shooks, barrels, shingles, sugar box shooks, iron, tin, or zinc moulds, for claying sugar, hempen linen, or hemp bags, rope of ditto, salt beef, salt pork, salt, and codfish, alewives, and mackerel, iron nails, steam engines for sugar grinding, machinery for ditto, spare pieces for ditto, boilers and tanks for ditto, bricks.

4th. If the vessels abovementioned, bring other articles than those specified in the

preceding article, they will not be admitted without first discharging the prohibited articles, at some port where such articles are admitted.

Privileges of the ports of Sagua:—

This port being open for the exportation of produce only under any flag, and for any destination, vessels may enter in ballast, to load with the productions of the country.

Which, by order of his excellency the secretary of the royal treasury, is hereby announced for the information of the public.

The above is dated Havana, November 24, 1843, and signed James Valdes, secretary *ad interim.*

In the order of the 18th instant of his excellency the Count of Villanueva, secretary of the treasury, transmitted to the sub-collectorship in this city, and to the different branches thereof, under my charge, the following publication is ordered to be made:—

"At a meeting on the 12th instant of their excellencies the captain general and secretary of the treasury, to examine and act upon a proposition, which, at the instance of the latter, was formally brought forward by the executive departments, and in concurrence with the comptrollers of the treasury; in order to modify, as much as possible, the duties on the principal products of the country in its present state of depression, and those of tonnage on vessels employed in the exportation of them; anticipating the approbation of the throne, which has been memorialized by the treasury department on these and other remedies of great and well known evils; and expecting that from the constant protection and solicitude of her majesty's government, it will regard with favor the provisional measures imperiously demanded by circumstances, and adopted in a manner consistent with the wants of the revenue, their excellencies resolved that, subject to the approval of the superior government, from the 1st of January next, there should be observed in all the custom-houses in this island where this order in season should arrive, and in the others, from the receipt thereof, the following rules:—

1st. Every box of sugar exported shall pay, in Spanish vessels, five, and, in foreign vessels, six reals.

2d. Every quintal of coffee in Spanish vessels, for Spanish ports, shall pay three reals; in Spanish vessels for foreign ports, four reals; and in foreign vessels for foreign ports, four and one-half reals.

3d. Molasses and rum are declared to be free of export duty.

4th. The vessels which depart with entire cargoes of molasses, will be exempted from tonnage duty.

5th. Foreign vessels that take more than one thousand boxes of sugar, will pay six reals per ton, register measurement; and Spanish vessels, two and one-half reals.

6th. The same modification of tonnage duty will be made in favor of vessels that take more than two thousand bags of coffee, or more than three hundred pipes of rum.

Which, by order of his excellency the Count of Villanueva, secretary of the treasury, is hereby announced for the information of the public.

The foregoing notice is dated December 12th, 1843, and signed James Valdez, secretary *ad interim*, and published at Matanzas, 21st December, 1843, for the information of the mercantile community, in pursuance of said order, by Mediavilla, deputy collector at Matanzas.

MEXICAN ADMEASUREMENT OF VESSELS.

Information has been received at the department of state at Washington, that, by a decree of November 8th, 1843, the regulations for the admeasurement of vessels established by a prior decree dated July 1st, 1842, have been abolished by the Mexican government, and the regulations formerly in force, have been re-established and confirmed.

As the decree of July, 1842, augmented the tonnage about seventy-five per cent, an equivalent reduction is the consequence of the new order. The present method of measuring vessels in Mexican ports is restored to that established by the circular of 21st October, 1826, and is as follows:—

The scale employed is that of Burgos. The rates between the foot at Paris, and that of Burgos, is as 6 to 7; between that of London and Burgos, as 10.97 to 12, or 100 London make 109.38 Burgos.

The scale being thus adapted to that of Burgos, the one-half of the length of the vessel from the stem to the stern-post, and of the keel, shall be taken and be multiplied by three-fourths of the breadth of beam, one half of the floor timbers, and of the depth of the hold; the product thereof, shall be divided by 70.19, and the quotient be deemed the true burden or tonnage on which the duties are payable.

TARIFF AND STAMP DUTIES AT RIO JANEIRO.

By a law passed 21st October, to be in rigor from the commencement of next year, the duty on salt is to be 240 reis per allegre; tonnage duties to be increased to 50 reis per ton, daily, for all foreign vessels, with the exception of those in ballast, or arriving for refreshments, which will only pay 30 reis; while those in distress will, as heretofore, be free. Stamp duties are likewise to be charged upon all promissory notes, and foreign and inland bills, as specified in the subjoined table, and at the rate of 1-5 per cent upon outward, and 1-10 per cent upon inward freight. At the foot, is also a note of alterations, made 28th October, in the tariff valuation of different articles.

TABLE FOR THE PAYMENT OF STAMP DUTIES, APPLICABLE TO INLAND BILLS, &c.

All bills of	Not exceeding	2 months date.	Longer period.	All bills of	Not exceeding	2 months date.	Longer period.
50$\|\|$	200$\|\|$	100 reis.	160 reis.	8,000$\|\|$	11,300$\|\|$	3,400 reis.	7,000 reis.
200$\|\|$	500$\|\|$	160 "	320 "	11,000$\|\|$	14,000$\|\|$	4,400 "	9,000 "
500$\|\|$	2,000$\|\|$	400 "	1,000 "	14,000$\|\|$	17,000$\|\|$	5,400 "	11,000 "
2,000$\|\|$	5,000$\|\|$	1,200 "	3,000 "	17,000$\|\|$	20,000$\|\|$	6,400 "	13,000 "
5,000$\|\|$	8,000$\|\|$	2,400 "	5,000 "	20,000$\|\|$ and upw'd,		7,400 "	15,000 "

Foreign bills to pay one-half.

The following are the alterations in the tariff referred to:—

Composition candles, per lb.,...	500 reis.	Soap, Mediterranean, per lb.,.	180 reis.
Pitch, coal, per bbl.,.....	2$\|\|$ "	" other qualities, per lb.,..	120 "
Powder, coarse, per lb.,.....	300 "	Steel, per quintal,.....	10$\|\|$ "
" fine, per lb.,.....	600 "	Tar, American,.....	3$||$500 "
Cigars, per 100,.....	3$\|\|$ "		

NEW BRUNSWICK POST-OFFICE REGULATIONS.

Official notice has been given by John Howe, deputy postmaster-general for New Brunswick, that on and from the 5th January next, all letters conveyed by post in British North America will be chargeable by weight, according to the scale now in operation as regards letters to and from the United Kingdom. On and from the same date, the franking privilege of the deputy postmaster-general, in respect to colonial newspapers and printed sheets, will cease; and there will then be charged for all such newspapers and printed sheets, (not exceeding two ounces in weight,) when sent to any town in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Canada, or Prince Edward's island, one halfpenny per sheet; to any other British colony, when not intended to pass through the United Kingdom, one halfpenny per sheet; to any foreign country, the (United States excepted,) whether intended to pass through the United Kingdom, or not, one halfpenny per sheet; to the United States, by the land-post, via St. Andrews or Woodstock, one penny per sheet; which postages, except on such newspapers as are addressed to towns in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's island, or Canada, must be prepaid by the senders, or the newspapers cannot be forwarded. Newspapers to the United Kingdom, when conveyed by Her Majesty's packets, will not be liable to any inland or packet postage. The limitation as to weight does not apply to newspapers addressed to the United Kingdom; but any colonial newspaper sent by post to any other place, and exceeding the weight of two ounces, will be liable to postage as a pamphlet. Pamphlets and other publications, printed in the United Kingdom, in British North America, or in the British West Indies, not exceeding sixteen ounces in weight, sent by post to any place in British North America, or in the United States, or in the British West Indies, without passing through the United Kingdom, will be liable to an inland postage of one penny per ounce, in addition to any charge for sea postage. No pamphlets or printed publications, exceeding the weight of sixteen ounces, can be forwarded through the post.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES AND GENOA.

Comparative Table of the Commerce of the United States and Genoa, from 1820 *to* 1843, *compiled from the records of the Consulate of the United States at Genoa, and authentic commercial information obtained from the Custom-House, and from other Consulates at Genoa, for the Merchants' Magazine, by C. Edwards Lester, Esq., United States Consul at Genoa.*

Year.	Inward cargo.	Value.	Outward cargo.	Value.
1820	Sugar, tea, nankeens, East India spices,	$514,000	Wine, oil, anchovies, glassware, &c.,	$68,800
1821	Cotton, tobacco, pepper, flour, pork, &c.,	436,500	Wine, oil, soap, rags, marble, fruits, &c.,	127,000
1822	Cotton, tobacco, pepper, drugs, &c.,	763,169	Light freight, many in ballast to East Indies,	3,000
1823	Codfish, coffee, sugar, flour, and tobacco,	624,927	Opium, spices, wine, rags, and fruits,	4,000
1824	West India woods and East India spices, &c.,	625,829	Oil, pepper, almonds, velvet, and silk,	47,000
1825	Pepper, logwood, pimento, beeswax, &c.,	268,408	Steel, almonds, rags, fruits, pepper, silks,	292,700
1826	The same, with a few new articles,	623,900	Opium, and large cargoes of Italian products,	65,250
1827	Tobacco, cocoa, sugar, cotton, pepper, and wood,	542,323	Nearly all in ballast, fruits and silks,	54,740
1828	Staples of the U. States, with hides, staves, sugar, &c.,	493,900	Oil, hemp, lead, steel, and velvets,	143,100
1829	Cotton, rum, nankeens, sugars, fish,	418,280	Pepper, fruits, silks, velvets, &c.,	75,834
1830	Cargoes generally of sugar, cotton, and tobacco,	441,800	Generally in ballast,	60,000
1831	Same cargoes, with large quantities of pepper,	519,558	Generally with pepper,	66,046
1832	Little variations of cargoes, in quantity or kind,	783,000	Generally with pepper and fruits,	15,200
1833	Little variations of cargoes, in quantity or kind,	556,100	Generally with spices and fruits,	32,600
1834	Little variations of cargoes, in quantity or kind,	694,824	.....	61,300
1835	Large quantities of tobacco, cotton, and pepper,	199,200	.....	29,700
1836	Large quantities of tobacco, cotton, and pepper,	467,000	Generally with fruits extensively,	49,700
1837	Cotton, rapidly increasing,	393,500	.....	17,800
1838	Cotton, rapidly increasing, and tobacco,	407,000	Generally with fruits.	43,600
1839	Cotton, rapidly increasing, and pepper, cargoes,	668,500	Cotton, pepper, fruits, and mulberry trees,	73,550
1840	Cotton, tobacco, cocoa, sugar, and assorted cargoes,	1,420,801	.....	124,800
1841	Cotton, tobacco, cocoa, sugar, and assorted cargoes,	821,680	Generally in ballast.	27,860
1842	Cotton, tobacco, cocoa, sugar, and assorted cargoes,	1,085,222	Spices to E. I. or Sicily, for fruits.	60,500

A Statement of the number of Vessels and Tonnage engaged in the commerce of the United States and Genoa, from 1799 *to* 1842, *compiled from official sources for the Merchants' Magazine, by C. Edwards Lester, United States Consul at Genoa.*

Years.	No. of vessels.	Tons.	Years.	No. of vessels.	Tons.
1799,.....	1	304	1821,.....	19	3,179
1800,*.....	12	2,326	1822,.....	24	4,206
1801,†.....	19	3,506	1823,.....	23	4,199
1802,‡.....	23	3,080	1824,.....	22	4,970
1803,§.....	4	522	1825,.....	17	3,039
1804,‖.....	1	170	1826,.....	9	3,804
1805,¶.....	...	.....	1827,.....	25	4,832
1806,*a*.....	3	378	1828,.....	21	4,375
1807,*b*.....	9	1,187	1829,.....	21	4,225
1808,*c*.....	1	152	1830,.....	18	3,852
1809,*d*.....	...	.....	1831,.....	27	5,165
1810,*e*.....	3	370	1832,.....	24	5,161
1811,*f*.....	...	.....	1833,.....	19	3,430
1812,.....	2	386	1834,.....	22	3,905
1813,.....	...	.....	1835,.....	12	2,332
1814,.....	...	.....	1836,.....	17	2,890
1815,*g*.....	5	532	1837,.....	13	2,663
1816,.....	5	1,141	1838,.....	16	3,310
1817,.....	17	1,995	1839,.....	17	4,006
1818,.....	10	1,838	1840,.....	49	5,666
1819,.....	2	233	1841,.....	24	7,892
1820,*h*	12	3,290	1842,.....	37	10,164

NOTES AND GENERAL REMARKS.

* Immense increase of commerce—two vessels reported as driven back to Genoa by British cruisers.

† Large increase in codfish trade—sold high—speculations made extensively in Yankee notions. ‡ Less tonnage, but more vessels.

§ Falling off in commerce—much flour and codfish.

‖ Only one vessel—ready sale, at high prices, for her Yankee notions.

¶ No vessels this year. *a* Commerce revives a little.

b Always ready sale for cargoes. *c* Only one vessel. *d* None.

e Our disturbed affairs with Great Britain and France injured our commerce. The three vessels reported this year were captured in the Mediterranean by French privateers, and two sold in this port by decree of Napoleon, and one liberated.

f War with Great Britain destroys our commerce on the Mediterranean in 1812, 1813, and 1814.

g Commerce begins to revive; and from this time the pepper trade with Genoa has generally been carried on by American vessels, which have been able to control it nearly to the exclusion of other nations.

h In 1820 begins Mr. Campbell's consulship, when the books of the consulate are kept in much better order.

REMARKS.

1. Generally it will appear, from this table, that our vessels have made cash trade with Genoa, buying only a small proportion of the value of their inward cargoes.

2. But the amount of our purchases here cannot be judged of by the reports of the cargoes carried away. It is probable that Genoa has always furnished a very large proportion of the velvet consumed in the United States. I find, for example, that some years, when little or no velvet is reported as carried away in our ships, quantities to the amount of fifty, one hundred, and even two hundred thousand dollars, have been sold by the Genoa manufacturers to American merchants. This information I got from the manufacturers themselves. It has been sent often to Leghorn for reshipment to Marseilles, and taken overland to Havre, to go by packets.

3. I find that a large proportion of our trade with Genoa has been carried on by Boston and Salem merchants. Some years, more than half the vessels entering into this port have been owned by Robert Shaw, of Boston.

4. Assorted cargoes have always done well here. It is the opinion of the principal merchants here, who have been familiar with the American trade, that assorted cargoes brought to this port, in American vessels, have averaged at least 20 or 25 per cent profit, often paying the freight; and they have generally met with a most ready sale.

5. Those vessels which have left so generally in ballast, have usually got freight in neighboring ports, or gone to Sicily or Malaga for fruits; but, at almost any period of the year, the products of Genoa could be purchased on advantageous terms, and a cargo taken with safety. Maccaroni and vermicelli, and candied fruits, are always sold low here, and always command a ready sale in America. Genoese lemons are the largest and best in the world. They ripen late, and keep better than those of any other Mediterranean country, and command a higher price at home. Marble is sure always to pay a fine freight when purchased here, and yields a profit besides. If our merchants, instead of ordering their masters to make immediate remittances home, would leave them at liberty to purchase a cargo of such articles as appear, by the Boston or New York price currents, to be selling well, they would often experience the greatest advantage. Our trade with Genoa should be made essentially a barter trade. An assorted cargo should be sent out, in exchange for other articles; and greater advantage, by far, could be experienced than by selling for cash, and buying again. Besides, the Porto Franco system, in operation here, affords great advantages; for often cargoes can be bought here which pay no duty to enter Porto Franco, and taken to the United States, at very large profits.

COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

We cheerfully give place to the following letter from Samuel S. Littlefield, Esq., one of the editors of the New Orleans Price Current, correcting an error into which we had inadvertently fallen, in the statement we gave of the commerce of New Orleans for 1843:—

PRICE CURRENT OFFICE,
FREEMAN HUNT, Esq. New Orleans, January 29, 1844.

Dear Sir—Your valuable Magazine, for December, came under my notice a day or two since; and you will pardon me if I point out an important error into which you have fallen in your notice of the commerce of New Orleans, compiled from our annual statement for 1843, under the head of "remarks." After giving the various tables of imports, exports, &c., you remark as follows:—"It seems, from the foregoing statements, that for the year ending September 1st, 1843, the imports into New Orleans are valued at ten and a half millions of dollars, which, of course, falls short of the real amount." Now, the very considerable error into which you have fallen, consists in your having mistaken the amount imported in *specie alone* as an estimate of the *total value of imports*. In my "general remarks," the following passage occurs:—

"Specie has flowed in upon us even in superabundance, and from all quarters; and our progressive table, which we adopted early in the season as an item of some considerable interest, shows imports into this city, since the first of September last, of nearly *ten and a half millions of dollars*, a sum which, large as it is, is doubtless short of the real amount some hundreds of thousands, in parcels received, but not reported."

This, you will at once perceive, has exclusive reference to the imports of *specie*. As regards the "value of imports into New Orleans for the year ending September 1st, 1843," I went no farther than the specie, as above stated, and the value of the most prominent articles received from the interior; which latter, according to a table which

you will find in the annual statement, amounted, in round numbers, to about fifty-four millions of dollars. Add to this the amount of specie, and you have a total of sixty-four millions and a half of dollars, *exclusive of all the imports of merchandise by sea, whether from foreign countries or United States ports, except cotton from Texas.* No record exists of the value of the immense supplies of manufactured and other goods brought to our city from coastwise ports, from the extremity of Maine to the Gulf of Mexico. Could this be ascertained, and added to the amount of foreign merchandise received, it would, with the other items above stated, probably give, as the "value of imports into New Orleans, for the year ending September 1st, 1843," instead of "*ten and a half millions,*" a grand total of at least *eighty millions of dollars.*

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

SAMUEL S. LITTLEFIELD.

COMMERCE OF NEW YORK.

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF NEW YORK IN 1842 AND 1843.

A Statement of Exports from the port of New York, for the year commencing January 1st, 1843, and ending December 31st, 1843, compared with same time in 1842.

Articles.	1843.	1842.	Articles.	1843.	1842.
	Quantities.			Quantities.	
Apples, bbls.	15,016	8,361	Gunpowder, kegs	8,233	4,405
Ashes, pot, bbls.	43,041	31,778	Hams & bacon, cwts.	8,235	5,627
" pearl, bbls.	2,584	3,879	Hides, No.	53,633	31,286
Beef, pickled, bbls.	36,048	24,195	Hops, bales	2,842	5,296
" dried, cwts.	6,999	2,002	Indigo, cases	41	137
Beeswax, cwts.	7,154	4,451	" ceroons	154	330
Brandy, pipes	10	10	Lard, kegs	188,687	155,085
" half pipes	169	258	Lumber—		
" qr. casks	123	113	Shooks, hhd. and pipe, No.	23,579	26,535
Butter, firkins	48,034	26,939	Boards and plank, M. feet	4,748	4,831
Candles, sperm, bxs.	11,856	11,384	Staves and heading, M.	3,239	4,155
" tallow, bxs.	23,326	9,234	Hoops, M.	1,000	859
Cassia, mats and cases	28,947	25,752	Shingles, M.	1,761	1,169
Cheese, casks	8,964	5,217	Nails, casks	9,248	6,344
" boxes	62,112	20,688	Naval stores—		
Clover-seed, tierces	1,561	4,312	Rosin, bbls.	82,844	58,481
Cochineal, ceroons	118	675	Sp. of Turp., bbls.	1,702	1,175
Cocoa, bags	13,071	5,532	Tar, bbls.	35,374	27,465
Coffee, casks	32	230	Turpentine, bbls.	202,039	188,206
" bbls.	234	531	Oils—		
" bags	19,401	18,514	Olive, baskets and cases,	1,208	962
Corn, bushels	51,301	155,795	Linseed, gall.	14,300	14,800
Corn-meal, hhds.	6,084	6,814	Whale, gall.	2,567,916	2,445,806
" bbls.	28,715	25,806	Sperm, gall.	472,563	275,227
Cordage, coils	2,559	1,725	Pepper, bags	2,187	1,692
Cotton, bales	164,354	169,214	Pimento, bags	5,247	11,864
Dom. cotton goods, bales and cases	30,435	19,729	Pork, bbls.	48,962	78,947
Dyewoods—			Rice, tierces	28,100	19,307
Logwood, tons	7,014	6,927	Rum, foreign, punch.	568	1,200
Fustic, tons	1,281	1,718	" American, bbls.	1,767	1,573
Nicaragua, tons	196	408	Saltpetre, bags	1,339	6,100
Fish—Dry cod, cwts.	40,559	33,941	Silks, packages	659	972
Mackerel, bbls.	3,859	4,649	Soap, boxes	33,960	24,810
Herring, bbls.	5,898	4,517	Sugars—		
Flaxseed, tierces	4,131	3,066	White Hav., boxes	266	841
Flour—Wheat, bbls.	274,881	325,869			
Rye, bbls.	8,798	10,617			
Gin, foreign, pipes	12	71			

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF NEW YORK, etc.—Continued.

A Statement of Exports from the port of New York, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	1843.	1842.	Articles.	1843.	1842.
	Quantities.			Quantities.	
Sugars—			Teas—		
Brown Hav., boxes	2,857	2,356	Gunp'wder and Imperial, pckgs....	10,709	13,326
Manilla, &c., bags..	5,511	.....	Tobacco, leaf, hhds..	6,771	7,701
Muscovado, hhds..	343	1,115	" leaf, bales, cases, &c.	12,989	12,863
Refined, cwt.....	9,066	18,643	" manf., kegs	11,799	11,702
Teas—			Whalebone, cwts.....	14,521	11,013
Souchong and other black, pckgs..	3,033	9,142	Wheat, bushels.....	44,885	100,323
Hyson skin, pckgs.	793	3,808	Whiskey, bbls.....	70	1,159
Hyson and Young Hyson, pckgs....	8,920	22,540	Wool, bales.....	64	1,000

NAVIGATION OF NEW YORK—1843.

The following statement of the number of vessels and passengers which arrived at the port of New York from foreign countries, during the year 1843, is furnished by Mr. Thorn, United States revenue boarding-officer :—

Vessels arrived from Foreign Countries.

	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	St'mers.	Galliots.	Sloops.	Total.
American,.....	402	153	515	288	1	0	3	1,362
British,.....	8	18	184	56	5	0	0	271
French,.....	4	3	4	0	0	0	0	11
Bremen,.....	16	25	9	3	0	0	0	53
Norwegian,.....	0	5	6	1	0	0	0	12
Swedish,.....	5	13	24	2	0	0	0	44
Sicilian,.....	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	6
Hamburg,.....	4	6	2	0	0	0	0	12
Danish,.....	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	6
Russian,.....	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2
Dutch,.....	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	6
Belgian,.....	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	4
Columbian,.....	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	5
Neapolitan,.....	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	3
Prussian,.....	0	2	15	1	0	0	0	18
Texan,.....	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Sardinian,.....	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
Italian,.....	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2
Genoese,.....	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Venezuelian,.....	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
Spanish,.....	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	4
Hanoverian,.....	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	4
Mexican,.....	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Total,.....	439	232	789	355	6	8	3	1,832

Comparing these results, says the Journal of Commerce, with the arrivals in 1842, we find there has been an aggregate diminution of 130. The number of American arrivals is 23 less; British, 114 less; Swedish, 5 less; Belgian, 10 less; Hamburg, 6 less; Dutch, 5 less; Italian, 3 less; Norwegian, 4 less; Sicilian, 1 less; Russian, 2 less; Venezuelian, 1 less; French, 1 more; Bremen, 10 more; New Grenada, 4 more; Neapolitan, 1 more; Prussian, 16 more; Sardinian, 1 more; Spanish, 3 more. The greatest falling off is in British vessels, viz: from 389 to 271; and the greatest relative increase in Prussian, viz: from 2 to 18.

Passengers.

The number of passengers who arrived here in 1843, from foreign countries, was 46,302. The following schedule shows the number of passengers arrived in each year since 1834 :—

Year.	Whole No. of arr.	No. of pass.	Year.	Whole No. of arr.	No. of pass.
1835,.....	2,094	35,303	1840,.....	1,953	62,793
1836,.....	2,293	60,541	1841,.....	2,118	57,337
1837,.....	2,071	57,975	1842,.....	1,962	74,014
1838,.....	1,790	25,581	1843,.....	1,832	46,302
1839,.....	2,159	48,152			

The arrivals, both of vessels and passengers, were less last year than the average of the last nine years.

Coastwise Arrivals in 1843.

Months.	Ships.	Bques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Total.	Months.	Ships.	Bques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Total.
January,....	24	15	63	170	272	November,.	18	5	53	386	462
February,...	20	26	65	152	263	December, ..	18	4	52	287	361
March,.....	13	11	72	245	341						
April,.....	10	5	56	313	384	Whole number, as above,.....					4,734
May,.....	16	9	74	348	447	Which, added to the foreign,.....					1,832
June,.....	23	11	56	399	489						
July,.....	28	3	53	372	456	Makes a total, for the year, of.....					6,566
August,.....	17	3	35	306	361	Whole number last year,.....					5,765
September,.	9	5	44	409	467						
October,....	14	3	35	379	431	Increase,.....					801

NOTE.—In the above, there are no sloops included; which, if added to the many schooners from Philadelphia and Virginia, loaded with wood and coal, which are never boarded, (owing to the remoteness of the points at which they come in,) would make the number much greater.

IMPORTS OF HIDES AT NEW YORK—1843.

A Statement of the number of Hides imported into New York from different places, for the year commencing January 1st, 1843, *and ending December 31st. Also, the total exports in each year, from* 1836 *to* 1843.

From	Total.	From	Total.
Antwerp,.....	6,662	Monte Video,.....	37,266
Africa,.....	32,406	Maranham,.....	4,860
Angostura,.....	54,408	Maracaibo,.....	5,551
Buenos Ayres,.....	50,319	New Orleans,.....	22,020
Calcutta,.....	23,300	Pernambuco,.....	77
Carthagena,.....	38,062	Para,.....	1,898
Carolina, North and South,.....	3,230	Rio Grande,.....	66,835
California,.....	502	Rio Grande, horse,.....	67
Chili,.....	4,255	St. Domingo,.....	264
Central America,.....	32,370	Virginia,.....	185
Curacoa,.....	3,153	West Indies,.....	3,387
Florida,.....	4,620	Unknown,.....	2,508
Georgia,.....	4,300	To dealers,.....	215,066
Honduras,.....	992		
La Guayra,.....	6,259	Total, 1843,.....	653,431
Mobile,.....	2,790	Same time, 1842,.....	635,631
Mexico,.....	25,819		

EXPORTS OF HIDES FROM NEW YORK.

The following table shows the exports of hides from the port of New York in each year, from 1836 to 1843, inclusive :—

Year.	Number.
1836,.....	109,273
1837,.....	99,356
1838,.....	25,695
1839,.....	24,186
1840,.....	31,325
1841,.....	4,245
1842,.....	31,286
1843,.....	53,663

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF BOSTON, 1843.

The following statements exhibit the imports into Boston of some of the principal articles of merchandise during the year 1843, commencing on the 1st of January, and ending on the 31st of December:—

IMPORTS OF DOMESTIC COAL INTO BOSTON.

Year.	Tons.	Bushels.	Year.	Tons.	Bushels.
1843,.....	117,451	150,813	1839,.....	90,485	144,475
1842,.....	90,276	121,800	1838,.....	71,364	107,625
1841,.....	110,932	124,041	1837,.....	80,557	109,275
1840,.....	73,847	92,370			

Of imports for 1843, there was received from Philadelphia 103,295; Rondout, 8,601; Havre de Grace, 1,638; Rhode Island, 1,564; other places, 2,353 tons of coal.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN COAL.

Year.	Tons.	Chaldrons.	Year.	Tons.	Chaldrons.
1843,.....	5,050	17,800	1839,.....	5,880	26,277
1842,.....	11,014	18,460	1838,.....	10,344	16,661
1841,.....	12,754	27,187	1837,.....	11,873	29,691
1840,.....	9,110	25,753			

The foreign coal in the above years is principally from Liverpool, Newcastle, Cardiff, Sidney, Pictou, &c.

The quantity of corn, oats, rye, and shorts, received at the port of Boston, from different places, in 1843, and total of each year, from 1837 to 1843, was as follows:—

From	Corn. *Bush.*	Oats. *Bush.*	Rye. *Bush.*	Shorts. *Bush.*
New Orleans,.....	399,750	5,321	1,092	.....
Mobile,.....	1,192	.....	.....	.....
Elizabeth city,.....	13,097	.....	.....	.....
Fredericksburg,.....	92,380	.....	.....	.....
Rappahannock,.....	19,400	.....	.....	.....
Alexandria,.....	30,373	.....	.....	.....
Georgetown,.....	15,780	.....	.....	.....
Other ports in Virginia,.....	12,833	.....	.....	.....
Baltimore,.....	378,839	57,809	2,721	742
Ports in Delaware,.....	65,510	13,250	.....	.....
Philadelphia,.....	298,841	33,392	5,559	.....
Salem, N. J.,.....	40,165	10,943	300	.....
New York,.....	137,726	153,573	8,050	18,220
Albany,.....	13,816	34,624	300	19,439
Other ports in New York,.....	12,600	15,350	1,050	.....
Western railroad,.....	8,004	109,040	6,881	1,450
Ports in Connecticut,.....	.....	400	.....	900
Maine,.....	.....	34,250	.....	.....
Nova Scotia,.....	.....	80	.....	.....
Total, 1843,.....	1,540,306	468,032	25,953	40,751
" 1842,.....	1,835,163	393,474	39,122	91,723
" 1841,.....	2,044,129	356,502	34,128	44,047
" 1840,.....	1,868,431	437,948	48,026	57,037
" 1839,.....	1,607,492	439,141	48,624	52,755
" 1838,.....	1,574,038	443,657	102,473	49,082
" 1837,.....	1,725,436	405,173	86,391	48,634

The total quantity of flour received at the port of Boston for each year, from 1837 to 1843, ending 31st of December, was as follows:—

Year.	Barrels.	Year.	Barrels.
1843,.....	610,964	1839,.....	451,667
1842,.....	609,460	1838,.....	379,704
1841,.....	574,223	1837,.....	423,946
1840,.....	619,261		

RECEIPTS OF FLOUR INTO BOSTON, BY THE WESTERN RAILROAD.

1843. Months.	Bbls.	Half bbls.	1842. Months.	Bbls.	Half bbls.
January,	1,247	64	January,	.....	.....
February,	318	46	February,	.....	.....
March,	1,652	208	March,	.....	.....
April,	995	68	April,	199	.....
May,	11,628	783	May,	4,152	144
June,	4,792	325	June,	3,860	.....
July,	11,358	167	July,	6,973	32
August,	7,859	148	August,	4,782	69
September,	10,171	263	September,	21,048	258
October,	32,374	412	October,	30,088	632
November,	32,815	1,171	November,	15,867	390
December,	6,395	209	December,	1,116	11
	121,604	3,924		87,085	1,536
Halves equal to....	1,962		Halves equal to....	768	
	123,566 bbls.			87,853 bbls.	

1843,	123,566 barrels.
1842,	87,853 "
Total,	211,419 "

The imports of molasses into Boston, in hhds., was—

In 1838,	65,660	In 1841,	78,062
1839,	72,267	1842,	73,991
1840,	79,546	1843,	63,675

The imports of spirits during the year ending December 31, 1843, have been—

		1,559	packages, containing	129,348	gallons.
Same period, 1842,		2,692	"	205,641	"
"	1841,	4,143	"	323,019	"
"	1840,	4,282	"	413,654	"
"	1839,	5,245	"	431,438	"
Deficiency compared with 1839,		3,686	"	302,090	"
Foreign spirits exported 1843,		60	"	4,970	"
Domestic "	1843,	6,033	"	273,758	"
Foreign "	1842,	122	"	7,737	"
Domestic "	1842,	8,899	"	447,352	"
Foreign "	1841,	4,143	"	323,019	"
Domestic "	1841,	11,461	"	626,498	"

Compared with 1841, there is a falling off in the traffic 10,511 packages, equal to 670,789 gallons.

The importation of sugar into the port of Boston, for the year ending December 31, 1843, has been as follows:—

Countries.	Lbs. brown.	Lbs. white.
Cuba,	17,552,954	1,131,731
Manilla,	4,295,123	294
Dutch West Indies,	18,965	.....
Spanish West Indies,	1,504,221	.....
British East Indies,	200	.....
Brazilian ports,	8,007	920
Danish West Indies,	250,360	.....
British American colonies,	15,518	9,459
South Seas,	9,817	.....
Total,	23,655,165	1,142,404
" 1842,	29,541,675	8,695,237
" 1841,	31,990,342	11,252,061
" 1840,	29,978,674	9,704,821
English refined, imported in 1843,		223,467

IMPORTATIONS OF COFFEE INTO BOSTON FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1843.

Countries.	Pounds.	Countries.	Pounds.
Holland,	147,000	Brazil,	4,008,252
Batavia,	234,466	Africa,	77,256
Surinam,	1,440	Chilian ports,	126,560
Hayti,	8,441,931	Danish West Indies,	575
Cuba,	1,017,150	St. Thomas,	15,100
Porto Rico,	105,562		
Porto Cabello,	1,726,068	Total, 1843,	16,071,665
Manilla,	170,405		
Imports for 1842,			18,508,040
" 1841,			12,245,390

The quantity of cotton received at the port of Boston during the year ending December 31, 1843, is as follows:—

From	Bales.	From	Bales.
New Orleans,	73,022	Demerara,	46
Mobile,	24,428		
Charleston,	16,739	Total,	151,000
Savannah,	15,565	In 1842,	119,670
Florida,	20,704	1841,	131,860
New York,	505	1840,	138,709
Philadelphia,	25	1839,	94,361
North Carolina,	17	1838,	96,636
Virginia,	10	1837,	82,684
Maine,	29		

The imports of hides, in 1843, were as follows:—

From	Hides.	From	Hides.
Buenos Ayres and Monte Video,	100,353	Sandwich islands,	12,329
Para,	1,154	Rio Janeiro,	300
St. Domingo and Port au Prince,	12,554	New Orleans,	48,401
Chili,	46,695	Mobile,	6,105
Pernambuco,	2,935	Savannah,	6,061
Gonaives,	628	Charleston,	300
Porto Cabello and La Guayra,	7,303	Florida,	816
St. Thomas,	1,211		
Curacoa,	158		299,117
San Juan,	6,175	Coastwise,	11,690
Truxillo,	5,530		
California,	33,245	Total,	310,807
Maracaibo,	870		

We give below a table embracing the arrivals and clearances of each month of the past year, (1843:)—

Arrivals.

	Foreign.				Coastwise.				
	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.
January,	9	5	29	4	15	10	32	125	2
February,	4	6	15	3	6	26	28	74	3
March,	4	9	33	13	2	23	44	169	8
April,	5	3	44	72	4	10	48	257	8
May,	11	13	59	101	7	15	60	341	12
June,	8	10	57	121	24	16	93	478	14
July,	18	14	47	139	13	12	80	438	16
August,	21	21	45	115	8	8	50	335	15
September,	18	21	48	113	6	8	77	510	29
October,	19	31	52	108	3	7	63	518	15
November,	7	14	39	75	6	8	56	403	9
December,	4	7	40	34	3	10	33	267	4
Total,	128	154	508	898	97	153	664	3,915	135
					128	154	508	898	...
Total number of arrivals for the year 1843,					225	307	1,172	4,813	135

Of the above, 2 ships, 5 barques, 100 brigs, 750 schooners, were British; 2 barques, 2 brigs, Sicilian; 2 brigs Russian; 1 brig French; 1 brig Spanish; 1 brig Bremen. The remainder were American.

Clearances.

	Foreign.				Coastwise.				
	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.
January,...	8	10	26	12	27	13	39	48	...
February,..	5	4	14	8	10	21	28	61	1
March,.....	3	25	18	7	5	14	48	105	3
April, ...	4	11	47	64	5	9	39	140	2
May, ...	6	10	58	98	4	10	47	183	7
June,.....	8	12	44	107	9	11	70	144	9
July,.....	8	11	49	121	2	9	57	161	7
August,....	8	11	43	116	6	13	50	148	12
September,	7	8	46	117	15	14	44	158	12
October, ...	8	14	40	101	27	21	51	165	8
November,	8	15	41	87	20	18	38	143	14
December,.	4	15	55	47	16	10	33	89	1
Total,...	77	146	481	885	156	163	544	1,545	76
					77	146	481	885	...
Total number of clearances for the year 1843,					233	309	1,025	2,430	76

Of the above, 2 ships, 5 barques, 103 brigs, 745 schooners, were British; 2 barques, 2 brigs, Sicilian; 1 barque, 1 brig, Swedish; 2 brigs Russian; 1 brig French; 1 brig Spanish; 1 brig Bremen, and the remainder American.

The above are exclusive of a large number of wood-coasters, and vessels sailing under licenses, and which neither enter nor clear at the custom-house. The disparity between the arrivals and clearances is owing to this fact. A great number of vessels arrive which do not clear at the custom-house before sailing.

During the year, the royal mail steamships Caledonia and Acadia, running between Boston and Liverpool, have entered and cleared at the custom-house five times each. The Hibernia has entered five, and cleared four times. The Britannia has entered and cleared three times. The Columbia entered and cleared twice, and was lost on her passage to Halifax, July 2d.

There have also been in port during the year, (having arrived from foreign ports,) British steamship North America, steamers Portland and Penobscot, H. B. M. surveying steamship Columbia, and H. B. M. frigate Spartan. Also, a number of vessels belonging to our own navy.

Quantity of Mackerel inspected in Massachusetts.

The following returns from the inspector general exhibit the quantity of mackerel inspected in this state for the year 1843, estimated in barrels; and also the total amount inspected in each year, from 1831 to 1843, inclusive:—

Towns.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	Total.
Gloucester,....	10,489	2,987	2,852	16,328
Boston,.....	5,078	2,149	2,119	9,346
Cohasset, ...	2,306	1,116	3,039	6,461
Hingham, ...	2,314	1,017	2,597	5,928
Wellfleet,.....	3,043	1,343	1,220	5,606
Newburyport,.	2,771	1,187	1,403	5,361
Truro, ...	1,542	721	1,112	3,375
Provincetown,	1,131	901	1,085	3,117
Yarmouth,....	1,040	399	957	2,396
Dennis,.....	940	471	962	2,373
Barnstable,....	665	246	510	1,421
Rockport,.....	675	227	365	1,267
Scituate,.....	322	127	100	549
Chatham,.....	268	99	82	449
Plymouth,.....	153	87	176	416
Duxbury, ...	13	9	25	47
Beverley, ...	9	2	...	11
Total, 1843,.....				64,451

Total in each year.	
1831,.....	383,559
1832,.....	212,452
1833,.....	212,946
1834,.....	252,884
1835,.....	194,450
1836,.....	176,931
1837,.....	138,157
1838,.....	108,538
1839,.....	73,018
1840,.....	50,992
1841,.....	55,537
1842,.....	75,543
1843,.....	64,451

CANAL COMMERCE AT ALBANY.

The following statement of merchandise left at Albany, on the Erie and Champlain canals, and the value of each article, during the years 1842 and 1843, is derived from an official source:—

	1842.		1843.	
THE FOREST—	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Furs and peltry,.....lbs.	341,500	$341,500	319,700	$319,700
Boards and scantling,.....feet	82,160,800	1,109,171	89,102,800	1,381,094
Shingles,.....M.	22,463	73,804	33,086	111,665
Timber,.....feet	17,989	3,598	2,513	540
Staves,.....tons	23,741	142,451	24,108	192,861
Wood,.....cords	11,444	54,360	10,876	51,661
Ashes,.....bbls.	25,583	537,243	37,785	935,179
AGRICULTURE—				
Pork,.....bbls.	42,480	$297,360	27,018	$283,690
Beef,.....	7,793	42,862	25,402	133,361
Cheese,.....lbs.	8,840,685	530,441	8,165,200	449,087
Butter and lard,.....	9,820,600	982,060	7,455,800	745,580
Wool,.....	2,129,300	638,790	3,212,500	867,375
Flour,.....bbls.	1,117,821	5,795,902	1,297,897	5,918,410
Wheat,.....bush.	187,442	198,688	138,542	138,542
Rye,.....	15,952	8,933	18,881	13,028
Corn,.....	252,599	141,456	114,628	65,338
Barley,.....	387,160	174,222	350,451	189,265
Other grain,.....	649,890	211,214	475,401	142,621
Bran and shipstuff,.....	587,900	82,306	420,316	58,844
Peas and beans,.....	11,043	9,662	4,411	4,411
Potatoes,.....	15,547	3,887	14,905	3,726
Dried fruit,.....lbs.	476,100	33,327	311,100	24,888
Cotton,.....	30,000	3,000	14,000	1,890
Tobacco,.....	1,027,200	143,808	1,347,700	148,247
Clover and grass seed,.....	1,336,650	120,299	2,136,200	149,534
Flaxseed,.....	410,260	8,205	464,300	9,286
Hops,.....	382,500	41,143	342,500	23,975
MANUFACTURES—				
Domestic spirits,.....gallons	463,087	$115,772	522,975	$156,893
Leather,.....lbs.	987,550	171,663	973,800	219,106
Furniture,.....tons	357	71,490	389	77,820
Bar and pig lead,.....	310	21,690	626	50,096
Pig iron,.....	101	2,506	14	428
Iron-ware,.....	108	7,557	24	1,677
Domestic woollens,.....	121	268,043	84	201,600
Domestic cottons,.....	292	116,630	319	159,400
Salt,.....	756	9,570	9,624	130,616
Merchandise,.....	118	35,408	68	23,678
OTHER ARTICLES—				
Stone, lime, and clay,.....tons	4,798	$9,596	7,058	$20,173
Gypsum,.....	5	26	281	1,407
Mineral coal,.....	6,880	34,399	1,824	10,943
Sundries,.....	6,419	513,504	10,258	20,632
AGGREGATES—				
Forest,.....tons	209,377	$2,261,327	218,628	$2,992,700
Agriculture,.....	180,900	9,467,565	188,976	9,370,398
Manufactures,.....	4,623	784,921	13,920	997,636
Other articles,.....	18,102	557,525	19,421	854,155
Merchandise,.....	118	35,408	68	23,678
Total,.....tons	413,120	$13,106,746	441,013	$14,238,567

LAKE COMMERCE OF CLEVELAND, OHIO.

A correspondent at Cleveland, Ohio, has furnished us with the subjoined official exhibit of the lake commerce at the port of Cleveland for 1843; and to show how favorably it contrasts with the business in 1830, an extract from Williams' New York Register is subjoined, embracing an account of the trade of that year. Also, a statement showing the number of vessels and steamboats, and their tonnage, belonging to the port of Cleveland, from 1830 to 1843, inclusive.

The tables furnish important data for the Congress of the United States, in the discussion on the improvement of the western waters. It is stated in the Cleveland Herald, that the half completed works, at that place, are fast going to decay and ruin. Portions of the wooden piers are so dilapidated and insecure, that severe storms endanger their permanency; and we submit it to Congress if a commerce that now reaches over $11,000,000 annually, should not receive at least a proportionate share of the protection and fostering care bestowed on the seaboard by the general government.

The following statement of produce cleared in 1830, at Cleveland, Ohio, which town is situated at the junction of the Ohio canal with Lake Erie, is particularly interesting to the people of this state, as it shows the commencement of a commerce which must accumulate rapidly, and principally flow through the western canal of this state:—

Salt, barrels,	23,404	Gypsum, tons,	85
Fish, "	4,482	Merchandise, tons,	1,461
Millstones, pair,	10		

The following articles of property have arrived at Cleveland, by way of the canal, during the year 1830:—

Wheat, bushels,	176,689
Coal, tons,	5,100
Flour, barrels,	32,988
Whiskey, barrels,	2,442
Pork, "	873
Beef, "	148
Linseed oil, casks,	802
Pot and Pearl ashes, tons,	104

The above arrivals, via canal, may be considered as the principal articles exported from Cleveland, during the year 1830.

Statement showing the number of vessels and steamboats belonging to the port of Cleveland, their tonnage, and the number of arrivals and departures, from the year 1830 *to* 1843, *inclusive.*

BELONGING TO THE PORT OF CLEVELAND.

Years.	Steamb'ts.	Schrs.	Sloops.	Brigs.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Arr. of vess. exclusive of steamboats.	Dep. of vess. exclusive of steamboats.
1830,.....	1	12	2	...	...	1,029	213	218
1831,.....	1	14	4	...	...	.....	355	350
1832,.....	1	21	5	...	...	.....	497	498
1833,.....	1	22	4	...	...	.....	794	790
1834,.....	1	27	5	...	...	.....	838	835
1835,.....	3	29	5	1	...	3,962	878	870
1836,.....	4	31	3	2	...	.....	920	921
1837,.....	7	48	6	2	...	.....	950	951
1838,.....	11	50	3	2	1	.....	1,054	1,050
1839,.....	11	49	3	2	1	.....	1,024	1,029
1840,.....	7	54	3	2	...	9,504	1,344	1,344
1841,.....	7	66	2	4	...	.....	1,364	1,366
1842,.....	5	67	2	6	...	8,671	1,418	1,412
1843,.....	4	74	3	5	...	9,386	1,382	1,432

Statement showing the Principal Articles imported and exported at the port of Cleveland during the year 1843. Also, the whole number of arrivals and departures, the number of vessels belonging to the District of Cuyahoga, and the aggregate tonnage.

IMPORTS.

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
Salt,.....bbls.	79,103	$93,934 81	Leather,.....sides	5,550	$16,650 00
Lumber, ...feet	1,504,215	15,040 00	" .....rolls	1,147	34,410 00
Shingles, ...M.	3,539	8,847 50	Cast-iron stoves,...	1,178	14,136 00
Fish,.....bbls.	5,808	23,232 00	Castings, ...lbs.	91,991	3,679 64
Plaster,.....	2,648	3,972 00	Water-lime,..bbls.	1,281	2,562 00
" .....tons	50	250 00	Nails, ...kegs	1,151	5,755 00
Shingle-bolts,cords	437	2,622 00	Marble,.....pieces	1,821	10,926 00
Merchandise,..tons	8,126		" .....tons	7	315 00
" pkgs.	40,769	5,712,392 00	Lehigh coal,.....	206	2,472 00
Furniture,.....	1,325		Burr blocks,...No.	1,163	1,500 00
" tons	16		Oil,.....casks	100	3,000 00
Seeds, ...casks	1,379	8,274 00	Clocks, ...boxes	645	16,125 00
Iron,.....tons	155	9,300 00			
Limestone,...cords	319	1,595 00	Total,.....		$5,991,651 95
Cedar-posts, ..No.	5,296	662 00			

EXPORTS.

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
Wheat,.....bush.	724,211	$564,884 58	Black walnut lumber, ...M. ft.	193	$2,895 00
Flour,.....bbls.	596,878	2,268,136 40	Brooms, ...dozen	2,420	3,630 00
Pork,.....	16,638	116,466 00	Tallow, ...bbls.	1,496	14,960 00
Corn, ...bush.	196,747	68,861 45	Hollow-ware, .tons	147	10,290 00
Oats, ...	11,158	2,343 18	Glass,.....boxes	8,610	12,915 00
Whiskey,.....bbls.	11,245	73,092 50	Fruit,.....bbls.	3,250	3,250 00
Salt,.....	16,726	19,862 12	Oil, linseed and lard,.....bbls.	1,811	45,275 00
Lard,.....kegs	17,504	52,512 00	Fish,.....	1,008	5,040 00
Butter,.....	12,076	48,304 00	Merchandise,.pkgs	15,534	881,935 00
Seeds,.....bbls.	3,293	29,637 00	" tons	555	
Ashes,.....casks	5,207	114,554 00	Beer, ...bbls.	43	215 00
Beef,.....	7,623	38,115 00	Produce, ...tons	15	600 00
Beans, ...bbls.	291	727 50	Saleratus, ...boxes	392	1,960 00
Cheese, ...lbs.	1,059,563	47,680 33	Starch,.....	110	220 00
Tobacco,.....hhds.	2,227	267,240 00	Hemp,.....tons	34½	2,760 00
Bacon,.....lbs.	862,964	38,833 38	Soap,.....boxes	330	1,980 00
Coal, (7,843 tons used by steamboats,).....tons	11,168	33,504 00	Candles,.....	89	267 00
Grindstones,.....	700	8,880 00	Beeswax,.....casks	40	2,400 00
Staves, ...M.	969	11,626 00	Live hogs,.....No.	750	3,000 00
Wool,.....sacks	8,704	304,640 00	Plaster,.....bbls.	234	409 50
Feathers,.....	1,061	19,098 00	Barley, ...bush.	1,460	547 75
Hides,.....No.	3,911	10,755 25			
Nails, ...kegs	6,361	31,805 00	Total,.....		$5,502,108 94
Iron,.....tons	4,200	336,000 00			

EXPORTS TO CANADA, INCLUDED IN THE ABOVE.

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
Flour, ...bbls.	49,362	$187,575 60	Iron,.....tons	29	$2,320 00
Pork,.....	4,812	33,684 00	Fruit,.....bbls.	91	91 00
Wheat,.....bush.	90,689	70,737 42	Starch, ...boxes	63	126 00
Corn,.....	78,481	27,468 35	Black walnut lumber,.....M. ft.	17	255 00
Grindstones, .tons	118	1,416 00	Salt,.....bbls.	396	444 50
Bacon,.....lbs.	40,511	1,823 00	Beef, ...	67	335 00
Barley, ...bush.	413	154 87	Brooms,.....dozen	99	148 50
Lard,.....kegs	705	2,115 00	Tallow,.....bbls.	29	290 00
Beer, ...bbls.	20	100 00	Hemp,.....tons	34½	2,760 00
Fish, ...	10	50 00	Seeds,.....bbls.	63	567 00
Coal,.....tons	1,459	4,377 80	Merchandise,pkgs.	512	19,926 00
Hollow-ware, ...	5	350 00	Total,.....		$357,348 74
Cheese, ...lbs.	5,211	234 50			

Total amount of exports in 1842,.....	$5,851,898 56	
" " " 1843,.....	5,502,108 94	
Balance in favor of 1842,.....		$349,789 62

This balance may be accounted for by the falling off in our foreign exports. Had our trade with Canada in 1843 been equal to 1842, our total exports would have amounted to $6,161,736 25; which is shown as follows:—

Exports to Canada in 1842,.....	$1,016,976 05	
" " 1843,.....	357,348 74	
	$659,627 31	
Add total exports in 1843,.....	5,502,108 94	
Total,.....		$6,161,736 25
Value of wheat, flour, and pork, shipped to Canada in 1842,.....	$961,954 31	
" " " " " " 1843,.....	291,997 02	
		$669,957 29
Whole number of vessels arrived in 1843,.....	1,382	
" steamboats arrived in 1843,.....	1,100	
		2,482
Whole number of vessels departed in 1843,.....	1,432	
" steamboats departed in 1843,.....	1,100	
		2,532
Whole number of vessels entered from Canada in 1843,.....	184	
" vessels cleared for Canada in 1843,.....	176	
		360
Total number of vessels belonging to the district of Cuyahoga,.....	82	
" steamboats " " "	4	
		86
Amount of tonnage,.....	9,386 8-95 tons.	
Number of men employed,.....	565	

LEAD AND COPPER TRADE OF GALENA.

We are indebted to an esteemed friend, (says the Missouri Republican,) for the following statement of the export of lead from Galena, in pigs and bars, and of copper. We would be glad if we could arrive at statements equally satisfactory, from the mines in the southern part of this state.

The following statement we understand as embracing all the shipments from the mines on the Upper Mississippi, via the river. The statement comes now just opportunely, as it will make manifest to Congress something of the necessity of providing for the improvement of the navigation of the Mississippi at the Des Moines Rapids. Here is about a million of property of one kind which has to cross these rapids, which is subjected to all the dangers, delays and losses incident to the dangers of navigation, and also has to bear the burden of the increase of charges growing out of these dangers. Besides, it will be seen by this statement that each of these items are growing rapidly, notwithstanding the obstacles they have to contend with, and in despite of the neglect with which government has ever treated them. For it may with propriety be said, that government has at no time aided in the extension or advancement of the mining interest; her operations, generally, have been to throw clogs and obstacles in the way of the operator.

The products of the mines are, however, but one of the many which that country affords. We regret that we have not at hand the means to show the amount of agricultural products shipped from points above the rapids. But it is a fact well known to the dealers in this city, that after supplying the mines and the emigration, this country affords a large surplus. This surplus is yearly increasing, and the day is not far distant when it will furnish an amount of agricultural products more than equal to its mineral wealth. All these things, we trust, will not fail to produce a proper effect on Congress.

Statement of the shipments of Lead from Galena and Dubuque, and all other points on the Upper Mississippi, for 1841, 1842, *and* 1843.

Months.	1841. Pigs lead.	No. steam-boats.	Keels towed.	1842. Pigs lead.	No. steam-boats.	Keels towed.	1843. Pigs lead.	No. steam-boats.	Keels towed.
March,.....	4,080	4	1	80,125	28	13	.....	...	...
April,.....	91,296	23	7	65,080	27	3	73,449	17	...
May,.....	91,233	28	14	46,515	33	...	122,224	48	3
June,.....	57,110	18	19	37,959	20	2	74,475	45	...
July,.....	58,820	19	12	54,436	20	10	77,333	40	...
August,.....	37,257	16	16	43,250	15	20	67,233	28	14
September,.	16,092	10	8	39,081	25	17	45,400	23	14
October,....	46,286	12	14	54,941	21	12	67,473	29	11
November,.	50,640	13	17	26,472	6	11	33,734	14	6
	452,814	143	108	447,859	195	88	561,321	244	55
Small lead, equal to.	2,750			840			2,410		
Shot in k'gs.	7,840			.....			5,000		
Shipped to the lakes,	.....			25,000			15,400		
Total,.....	463,404			473,699			584,131		

Pigs Wisconsin copper, 1,400, equal to 95,000 lbs.

GALENA, Dec. 15th, 1843.

A. B. CHAMBERS—Dear Sir:—Above I hand you a statement of the shipments of lead made from this section of the country this season, compared with that of 1841 and 1842, together with the number of steamboat departures, and number of keels and barges towed; showing 561,321 pigs against 447,859 pigs in 1842, and in small bar lead, 2,410 pigs against 840 pigs; showing an actual increase in the shipments of... 115,032 pigs.

To which should be added that stopped by ice in 1842, none of which reached St. Louis prior to 10th April, 1843,..... 25,142

Making an actual increase in the supply of..... 140,174

That made into shot, say 5,000 pigs, has gone to supply the lake borders, as well as the lead shipped that way. The steamboat arrivals show an increase of 49 over 1842, being 244 against 195.

The article of Wisc6nsin copper is attracting notice, and will become a valuable article in the trade of this country. Our shipments this year amount in value to, say $11,000, and will, I think, in 1844, double that amount. In the Boston market it commands the same price as Peruvian copper, and with one house has the preference over it.

The value of the lead exported from here this year may be set down at 563,731 pigs of 70 lbs.=39,461,171 lbs.; at $2 27½,..... $937,202 00

And copper,..... 11,000 00

$948,202 00

Our means of transportation have been remarkably low throughout the season, owing to the high water which removed the obstructions at the Rapids, reducing freight to 7, 8, and 10 cents per 100; and, up to within a few days of the closing of our navigation, they did not exceed 20 to 25 cents. Such would invariably be the case if Congress would remove the obstructions at the rapids. Respectfully, your ob't servant.

The Western Gazette, printed at Galena, in publishing the accompanying table and letter, remarks:—

"The above statistics furnish gratifying evidence of the growing prosperity and increasing wealth of this interesting portion of the north west. During the past year, the shipments of lead were far greater than any previous year, and all branches of trade and industry in the mining region have experienced more substantial prosperity than ever before. Our merchants, although more numerous, have realized larger profits than at any former period, and all others, engaged in different avocations, been proportionably benefited. This section of country holds out strong inducements to emigrants. Its abundant mineral and agricultural resources give it a superiority over almost every other. Those resources are yet undeveloped, comparatively, and their intrinsic value can be appreciated only by those who shall avail themselves of them."

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

NEW YORK MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

The Twenty-third Annual Report of the Board of Directors of the Mercantile Library Association, read by the president on the evening of the 9th of January, 1844, has been published, which, together with the treasurer's report, proceedings of the annual meeting, and a list of the members, occupies thirty octavo pages. The report is able and interesting, and breathes throughout a liberal and enlightened spirit. The twenty-second annual report states the aggregate number of members to be three thousand three hundred and seventy-two. From this number, deducting the stockholders of Clinton Hall Association, who, though entitled to the privilege of the library, are not members, two hundred and ninety-two, and honorary members one hundred and fifty, leaves the number of paying members, as stated in the previous report, two thousand nine hundred and thirty. From this number, deduct withdrawals in 1843, and accounts closed, which expired in 1842 and 1843, in accordance with an article in the constitution, in all one thousand one hundred and eighty-one, leaving one thousand seven hundred and forty-nine members, to which add the new members of the past year, and we have at the present time two thousand five hundred and one paying members. The present number of honorary members is one hundred and fifty-six; stockholders of Clinton Hall Association two hundred and ninety-two. From the treasurer's report, it appears that the receipts for the year ending September 31, 1843, have been $4,355, and the expenditures $4,466. Four hundred and twenty-one volumes have been added to the library during the past year, by purchase, and forty-four by donation; making a total, taking the statement of 1842 as a basis, of twenty-five thousand one hundred and forty-nine volumes. We annex a list of the officers for 1844, elected at the annual meeting, as follows:—

Charles E. Milnor, President; John C. Clark, Vice President; George Grundy, Corresponding Secretary; Charles M. Wheatley, Recording Secretary; Benjamin P. Kissam, Treasurer. Anthony Halsey, Roswell E. Lockwood, Elias B. Mullany, John Loines, Henry K. Bull, John H. Earle, Cornelius L. Everitt, Directors.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY COMPANY OF PHILADELPHIA.

The Directors of this Association, in their Twenty-first Annual Report, presented at a meeting of the stockholders, January 9th, 1844, advert with high gratification to the continued prosperity of the Association. They say, with justice, that the proudest anticipations of its enlightened founders, must be more than realized by its present attitude, and the great power for usefulness, which it exerts in the city of its location. Nearly a quarter of a century has elapsed since the institution was established. A few hundred volumes, at the commencement, have swelled into nearly nine thousand valuable works; and the records exhibit the gratifying fact, that the entire library is taken out for perusal in every year. The number of volumes added, since the former report, is four hundred and nineteen. The number taken out for perusal, ten thousand two hundred and sixty. It is also supplied with twenty magazines and other periodicals. The treasurer's report, exhibiting the fiscal affairs of the company, shows the disbursements during 1843, for books and periodicals, to be $879 43, and ordinary expenses $1,405 85, and the receipts from fines, contributions, dividends, &c., $2,210 88; leaving at the present time in the treasury, and in investment at interest, the sum of $3,725 46, which can be made immediately available for building, or other purposes. It is contemplated to erect a building expressly for the use of this Association, and from the spirit evinced by the

Association, no doubt is entertained that this object, so desirable, will be accomplished. The following gentlemen compose the list of officers for 1844:—

Thomas P. Cope, President; John Fausset, Treasurer; John J. Thompson, Secretary; James Cox, Librarian. Thomas P. Cope, Isaac Barton, Charles S. Wood, Joseph Patterson, Robert F. Walsh, Joseph C. Grubb, J. L. Erringer, J. J. Thompson, William L. Schaffer, William E. Bowen, J. V. Williamson, C. H. Welling, Marmaduke Moore, Directors.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF BALTIMORE.

We have received from the President of this Association, the Fourth Annual Report of the Board of Directors. It is a brief but business-like document, furnishing a comprehensive view of the management and condition of the institution during the past year, with such suggestions as occurred to the directors while officially charged with the conduct of its business. Though the Association has not increased in point of numerical strength, during the year ending November 9th, 1843, yet its general condition is one of soundness, strength, and prosperity. On the whole, it has much cause to consider itself fortunate, as from its foundation to the present time, it has gone steadily forward in its career. The number of active members, at the date of the third annual report, was three hundred and twelve; from this number, sixty-seven are deducted for resignations, and twenty-nine for transfers to the honorary members book, leaving two hundred and sixteen names on the roll; the number of members added the present year is eighty-seven, making a total of three hundred and three members. "Unless," says the report, "the Association continues to increase for at least four years more, at something near the rate of the first three years of its existence, it will not adequately represent the strength of the class of which its active membership is composed, nor though more rapidly in its rising will it be comparatively as strong as its sister Association in New York, which counts fourteen times our strength in a city of little more than three times the population of our own." The number of books in the library, according to the last report, was two thousand eight hundred and ten; the number, at present, is three thousand six hundred and ten; making an increase during the year of eight hundred volumes. Of this number, five hundred and thirteen have been purchased, two hundred and fifty-four presented, and thirty-three volumes of periodicals and papers bound. From the treasurer's report, we learn that the total revenue from actual and honorary subscriptions, lectures, and other sources, amounted to $1,936 90, which, with the balance remaining on hand from last year, made a total of $2,141 63. Of this sum, there was expended for books, periodicals, and binding, $640 64, and for rent, salary, furniture, &c., $1,149 79, leaving a cash balance of $351 22. The Association has besides a fund of $500, set apart for contingencies during the second year of its existence, and invested in city stock. The amount received from the sale of tickets to the lectures, was $1,522; of which, $607 was paid lecturers, and for other expenses $514, leaving a profit of $400. We are gratified to notice the name of our worthy friend, W. G. Lyford, Esq., editor of the Commercial Journal, added to the list of honorary members, a tribute of respect eminently due to that gentleman, in consideration of his services to the commercial community, as well as for good offices rendered the Association on various occasions. The following gentlemen were elected officers of this Association for the term of one year, from November 10th, 1843:—

Charles Bradenbaugh, President; Upton H. Stephens, Vice President; Joseph T. England, Corresponding Secretary; John K. Carrington, Recording Secretary; Robert H. Lowry, Treasurer. Henry Winter, George F. Thomas, John J. Wight, Henry E. Thomas, Edmund Jacobsen, H. Ballard Johnston, John R. Lowe, Directors.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Letters of Horace Walpole, Earl of Orford, to Sir Thomas Mann, His Britannic Majesty's Resident to the Court of Florence, from* 1760 *to* 1785. Now first published from the original MSS. Concluding series. In 2 volumes. Vol. 1, 8vo., pp. 421. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

In 1842, the enterprising publishers of the present volume reprinted from the London edition the first series of Walpole's letters, in four large and handsome octavo volumes. In presenting these new letters, they state that the second volume may be shortly expected, which will complete the series to Horace Mann; and that, in bringing them out in this form, it has been their desire that the purchasers of the four previous volumes should be able to complete their sets in a form to match. To those who have read the former series, we need say nothing in the way of commendation; but to those who have not, it will, we presume, be satisfactory to know that but one opinion is entertained by those at the head of literary criticism in England. We consider them models of epistolary writing, abounding in proofs of the author's intimate perceptions of human nature, and his clear views of public affairs. They are full of wit, pleasantry, and information, and written with singular neatness and sprightliness.

2.—*The Various Writings of Cornelius Matthews; embracing the Motley Book, Behemoth, the Politicians, Poems on Man in the Republic, Wakendah, Puffer Hopkins, Miscellanies, Selections from Arcturus, and International Copyright.* 8vo., pp. 370. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present volume embraces the complete works of Mr. Matthews, which have before been published in various forms, and widely circulated. These writings have been exposed on the one hand to unjust criticism, and on the other to extravagant praise. Mr. M., however, holds a clever pen; and many of the papers are in a vein of quiet humor, and at the same time free from that disgusting vulgarity supposed by some to be an indispensable requisite of wit. There is considerable force in the arguments adduced in the speech and lecture at the close of the volume, in favor of an international copyright, but not enough to convince us either of the justice or expediency of the measure. We have no idea that, if adopted, it would benefit American authors a penny; and sure are we that a large majority of the American people would be deprived, in a great measure, of those inspirations of genius bestowed on the gifted for the benefit of the many.

3.—*Endeavors after the Christian Life. A Volume of Discourses.* By James Martineau. 12mo., pp. 291. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

It is refreshing, in the midst of the sectarian controversies of the time, to take up a work pregnant with the inner heart of human life and faith. Those who, in devout reading of books and men, look rather for that which *is* Christian, than that which *talks* of Christianity, will find in this volume no faint impression of the religion by which all should desire to live and die. The discourses in the volume have no formal connection, but were prepared at different times, and "in different moods of meditation;" and are related to each other only by their common direction towards the great end of responsible existence. Without any apparent effort for effect in style, they are at once models of elegant and graceful composition.

4.—*Sacred Biography; or, the History of the Patriarchs. To which is added, the History of Deborah, Ruth, and Hannah, and also the History of Jesus Christ. Being a Course of Lectures delivered in the Scotch Church, London-Wall.* By Henry Hunter, D. D. In one volume, 8vo., pp. 596. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A new edition of an old and popular work. It is too well known in the religious world to require any other notice than the mere announcement of its appearance in the present neat and attractive garb.

5.—***Benthamiana; or, Select Extracts from the Works of Jeremy Bentham. With an Outline of his opinions on the Principal Subjects discussed in his Works.*** Edited by JOHN HILL BURTON, Advocate. 12mo., pp. 446. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This handsomely printed volume contains several hundred extracts from the voluminous works of the utilitarian philosopher. The brilliant wit, the lively illustration, the spirited eloquence, and the expressive clearness in many of the passages embraced in this collection, are scarcely excelled by any writer in the English language. Several of the passages in this selection contain pretty ample illustrations of the author's method of reasoning, and of the conclusions to which he arrived on many of the subjects which he most prominently discussed.

6.—***The Poetical Works of Thomas Moore.*** Collected by himself. Complete in one volume. 18mo., pp. 518. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The American publishers have compressed in one volume the entire contents of the London edition, in ten volumes. To each are prefixed autobiographical sketches, and anecdotes connected with the poems in that volume; and, in order to present these in their proper connection, and elucidate clearly the author's allusions, they have marked the beginning of each volume of the English edition, adopting Mr. Moore's arrangements throughout the entire work. At the close, are several pages of songs and pieces which have been omitted in the London edition, which render the present the most complete yet published.

7.—***Lectures on Christian Doctrine.*** By ANDREW P. PEABODY, Pastor of the South Church, Portsmouth, N. H. 12mo., pp. 227. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

These lectures, we are informed in the brief preface, are not offered to the public as a full compend of Christian doctrine, or as a fair exhibition of the positive side of the author's own faith; but simply as a discussion of the prominent points at issue between the Unitarian and the Calvinistic portion of the Christian church. The object of the author, as stated in the opening lecture, is to exhibit a fair and candid view of the points in which Unitarians differ from other Christians, and of the grounds on which their peculiar views rest. Reference is of course made to the creeds of others, but generally in a kindly tone and manner.

8.—***Letters on the Ministry, Ritual, and Doctrines of the Protestant Episcopal Church, addressed to the Rev. William E. Wyatt, D. D., Associate Minister of St. Paul's Parish, Baltimore, &c.*** By JARED SPARKS, formerly Minister of the First Independent Church of Baltimore. 12mo., pp. 240. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

These letters were elicited by a sermon of Dr. Wyatt, exhibiting some of the principal doctrines of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, several years since, and are, of course, of a controversial character, but are written in a very catholic and liberal spirit. The subjects discussed are the ministry, ritual, and authority of the church in controversies of faith; the doctrinal character of the thirty-nine articles; the doctrine of the Trinity, as held by the Episcopal Church, &c. The high moral and intellectual character, as well as critical acumen of the author, will doubtless secure for the work the candid perusal of many who may not assent to the force of his arguments, or the correctness of his conclusions.

NEW YORK BOOK-TRADE SALE.

The thirty-ninth semi-annual sale of Messrs. Bangs, Richards & Platt, will commence on Tuesday, the 26th of March, and continue until the close of the week. The catalogue (of one hundred and fifty six octavo pages) contains an unusually valuable collection of new and standard works in every department of literature and science, stationery, plates, &c. In running over the catalogue, we notice contributions from all the leading publishers and booksellers in the United States, who generally attend these sales; which, it affords us pleasure to say, are conducted by the present worthy and intelligent proprietors in a manner that gives universal satisfaction to all concerned.

[We give below a list of the works published in pamphlet form since the commencement of the present year. These works crowd upon us so fast, that we have been compelled to adopt the plan of giving the title-page in full, number of pages, name of the publishers, &c. In this way, we shall be able hereafter to notice all the works of this class that we receive, without encroaching upon the original design of our Journal. The plan will, we have no doubt, prove satisfactory to the publishers of cheap literature, and the readers of the Merchants' Magazine, inasmuch as it will furnish a catalogue of nearly all the new works that appear. It will be seen that most of the works, the titles of which are given below, are reprints of English literature, or translations from foreign languages.]

1.—*Tables of Interest, determining, by means of Logestic Squares, the Interest in every Whole Sum up to Ten Thousand Dollars, for any length of time not exceeding four hundred days, at the Rates of Six and Seven per cent.* New York: Wiley & Putnam.

2.—*Arabella Stuart. A Romance from English History.* By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq., author of "Darnley," "Morley Ernstein," "The False Heir," etc. No. 26 "Library of Select Novels." 8vo., pp. 142. New York: Harper & Brothers.

3.—*Mr. Cheever's Lectures on the Pilgrim's Progress, and on the Life and Times of John Bunyan.* Nos. 1, 2, and 3. pp. 132. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1844.

4.—*New Sketches of Every-Day Life. A Diary. Together with Strife and Peace.* By FREDERIKA BREMER. Translated by MARY HOWITT. 8vo., pp. 134. New York: Harper & Brothers.

5.—*The Mothers of England: their Influence and Responsibility.* By MRS. ELLIS, author of "The Women of England," "Sons of the Soil," "The Wives of England," etc. 8vo., pp. 122. New York: Henry G. Langley.

6.—*The Ministry of Men in the Economy of Grace, and the Danger of Overvaluing it. A Sermon preached before the University of Oxford, October 25th,* 1840. By EDWARD HAWKINS, D. D., Provost of Oriel College, and Canon of Rochester. 8vo., pp. 41. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

7.—*£ S. D. Treasure Trove.* A Tale. By SAMUEL LOVER, Esq., author of "Handy Andy," "Rory O'More," etc. 8vo., pp. 173. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

8.—*The American in Paris during the Summer. A Picture of Parisian Life in the Court, the Salons, and the Family Circle; its Sports, Amusements, and Festivities.* By JULES JANIN. 8vo., pp. 117. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.

9.—*The Yemassees. A Romance of Carolina.* By W. G. SIMMS, LL. D., author of "Guy Rivers," "Martin Faber," etc. In 2 vols. Harper's Pocket Edition of Select Novels. 18mo., pp. 222 and 242. New York: Harper & Brothers.

10.—*St. Patrick's Purgatory. An Essay on the Purgatory, Hell, and Paradise, current during the Middle Ages.* By THOMAS WRIGHT, M. A., F. R. S. 8vo., pp. 88. New York: J. Winchester.

11.—*El Dorado; being a Narrative of the Circumstances which gave rise to Reports, in the Fifteenth Century, of a Splendid City in South America, to which that name was given, and which led to many enterprises in search of it; including a Defence of Sir Walter Raleigh, in regard to the relations made by him respecting it, and a Nation of Female Warriors, in the vicinity of the Amazon, etc. With a Map.* By J. A. VAN HEUVEL. 8vo, pp. 153. New York: J. Winchester.

12.—*Memoirs of Silvio Pellico; or, My Prisons.* Translated from the Italian. By M. J. SMEAD, and H. P. LEFEBRE. New York: Henry G. Langley.

13.—*A Biography of John Randolph of Roanoke, with a Selection from his Speeches.* By LEMUEL SAWYER, formerly of North Carolina, and for sixteen years an associate in Congress with Mr. Randolph. 8vo., pp. 132. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.

14.—*The Kitchen Directory, and American Housewife; containing the most Valuable and Original Receipts in all the various branches of Cookery, together with a Collection of Miscellaneous Receipts, etc.* 12mo., pp. 144. Mark H. Newman.

15.—*The Hierarchical Despotism. Lectures on the Mixture of Civil and Ecclesiastical Power in the Government of the Middle Ages, in illustration of the Nature and Progress of Despotism in the Romish Church.* By Rev. GEORGE B. CHEEVER. 12mo., pp. 120. New York: Saxton & Miles.

16.—*Travels in the Californias, and Scenes in the Pacific Ocean.* By THOMAS J. FARNHAM, author of "Travels in the Great Western Prairies," etc. 8vo., pp. 96. New York: Saxton & Miles. 1844.

17.—*The Salamander. A Naval Romance.* By EUGENE SUE. Translated from the French. By HENRY WILLIAM HERBERT, author of "Cromwell," "The Brothers," etc. 8vo., pp. 115 New York: J. Winchester.

18.—*The Female Blue-Beard; or, Le Morne-au-Diable.* By EUGENE SUE, author of the "Mysteries of Paris." 8vo., pp. 115. New York: J. Winchester.

19.—*Colonel de Surville. A Tale of the Empire*—1810. By EUGENE SUE. Translated from the French by THOMAS POOLEY, Esq. 8vo., pp. 60. New York: J. Winchester.

20.—*Charles de Bourbon, Lord Constable of France. A Historical Romance.* By ALPHONSE ROGER. Translated from the French. By EDWARD S. GOULD. 8vo. New York: J. Winchester.

THE

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

APRIL, 1844.

Art. I.—THE OTHER RIGHTS OF SOVEREIGNTY OVER THE DANISH SOUND AND BELTS.

THE OTHER RIGHTS OF SOVEREIGNTY OVER THE SOUND AND BELTS, APPERTAINING TO THE CROWN OF DENMARK.

Various prerogatives, which were formerly conceived to flow from the sovereignty of the Danish kings over the three sounds, Oeresund and the two belts, have in later times been in part renounced, and in part modified. Among these, is the before-mentioned right of denying the passage of these waters to the vessels of any nation, even of those at peace with Denmark. This authority was anciently recognized to that extent, that after the death of Frederick I., the Hanse Towns applied for the exclusive right of passage, and particularly asked that it should be refused to the Dutch, their rivals in the trade of the Baltic. The Spaniards, also, admitted the same right, by negotiating with Christian IV., both in 1605 and 1640, for the exclusion of the Dutch from passage, Spain offering to indemnify the king for the loss of revenue which would thus accrue. It was upon the ground of this supposed authority, that the king sometimes denied to foreign nations the liberty of passing through the belts, and required them to take the route of the sound, and sometimes conceded this license as a matter of special favor.

When our kings were considered as possessing the right of preventing altogether passage through the sound and belts, they would, *a fortiori*, conceive themselves authorized to forbid the transportation of particular wares through the same channels. We know, for example, that Christian IV., and perhaps, also, Frederick II., forbade the transportation of munitions of war through the sound, without special license previously granted, on application of the power interested. Even the Swedes, who were disposed to question the right, yielded the point, and by the Union convention of 1624, it was stipulated, that this right might be exercised, as it formerly had been, and when, in 1641 and 1642, the Swedish gov-

ernment demanded the free transportation of guns and other munitions of war, the Danes appealed to this convention. The Dutch, on the other hand, who thought themselves more illiberally treated than other foreign nations, fruitlessly complained of this prohibition, at the instigation of the Spaniards, especially after saltpetre, in which they carried on an important trade, was burdened in the year 1637 by a toll of fourteen rix dollars, currency, per barrel, the king considering this trade as an evasion of the prohibition on gunpowder. In the before-mentioned treaty of 1641, with England, (which, however, was not ratified by that power,) the king expressly reserved to himself, by the 13th article, the right of raising or reducing at pleasure the rate of toll on guns and munitions of war passing the sound, but engaged, that such articles belonging to the crown of England should be allowed to pass toll free, on due proof.

By the treaty of Bromsebro, of 1645, with Sweden, the Swedes were expressly allowed to transport munitions of war through the sound and belts. The treaty of Christianople, with Holland, of the same date, provides that all merchandise, without exception, may pass, unless the property of the king's enemies, in which case it was to be regarded as contraband of war. Other treaties have been concluded in conformity herewith, and the right of prohibiting the transportation of munitions of war through the sound, may now be considered as abandoned.

In like manner, the kings of Denmark formerly claimed the right of preventing the passage of ships with armed troops, and ships of war, through these waters. Upon this ground, Christian IV., in 1621, refused to the Polish government the liberty of transporting, through the sound, the troops which that power had enlisted in England. By the treaty of Bromsebro, the king of Sweden was allowed to transport soldiers through the sound, but not a greater number than 1,200 men at a time, and even then, a previous notice of three weeks was required. The same provisions were incorporated in the peace of Copenhagen, in 1660.

In regard to the passage of ships of war, it was stipulated by the treaty of Bromsebro, that not more than five Swedish men of war should pass the sound at once; and that, if a larger fleet desired to pass, three weeks previous notice should be given. This article is also repeated in the treaty of Copenhagen. In the treaties with Great Britain, Holland, and France, the number of men of war allowed to pass the Danish channels, without previous notice, is limited to six.

These provisions were made chiefly with a view to secure, as far as possible, the Danish territory against unexpected attacks, but experience has shown that they are by no means sufficient for this purpose.

In virtue of the same sovereignty over the channels, the kings of Denmark have assumed the right of requiring the delivery of such merchandise as the government might select out of the cargo, at a reasonable price, the amount of which was deducted from the toll. This right was principally exercised in regard to wine and salt.

Christian IV. extended this right of pre-emption still further, and claimed the power of taking the whole cargo, at the price at which the captain estimated it in his toll manifest. This has been styled the prerogative right, and its principal purpose was the prevention of frauds on the toll; but as its exercise gave occasion to many complaints, it has been seldom or never enforced since the conclusion of the treaty of Christianople.

The right of seizing and detaining vessels navigating the sound or belts, for the purpose of employing them in war, was constantly practised in ancient times, because merchant vessels were generally armed, or so built, that they could readily be transformed into men of war, according to the system of naval construction then used.

Thus Hvitfeld relates, that King John took into his service, to be employed in the war with Lubeck, according to the ancient usage of the realm, several of the two hundred Dutch ships, which, in the year 1541, were collected in the sound. Christian II. exercised the same right over neutral ships passing the sound, when he was engaged in enforcing his claims to the throne of Sweden. By way of partial compensation for this compulsory service, he gave to some of the captains money, and to others a perpetual or temporary right of passing the sound toll free. Christian III. repeatedly exercised the same right in the Counts' war, especially in regard to English and Dutch ships. The treaty of Speier, in 1544, recognised this prerogative of the Danish crown, by stipulating that the king should thereafter exercise it only in case of necessity. At a somewhat earlier period, (1508,) King John had renounced it in favor of the Hanse Towns.

Men of war have in general free passage through the sound, and are exempt from payment of toll, unless they are used for mercantile purposes, in which case the exemption of course ceases.

Ships of war are required to fire a full salute, on passing Kronborg castle, and are saluted in return. Single men of war are also obliged to lower the main topsail in passing, either by the provisions of particular treaties, or according to established usage. But in the treaty of 27th May, 1660, with Sweden, it was provided, that Swedish men of war, whether one or more in number, on passing the sound, should salute Kronborg castle with a Swedish salute, and be complimented by the fortress with a Danish salute in return. By the treaty with Russia, 30th October and 10th November, 1781, it was stipulated, that neither striking of flag or streamer, nor lowering of topsail, should be demanded of men of war, and that salutes should be returned gun for gun. By article 8, of the same treaty, merchant ships are required to lower topsails, and if this be omitted through the negligence of the captain, he is not to be detained, but punished in an exemplary manner by his own government, upon due proof of the fact.

Merchant vessels, in general, are obliged to pay the same honors to the fortress, and keep the sails lowered for at least five minutes, on approaching the castle from either direction. The topgallant-sails are required to be lowered, in case of vessels carrying such sails; in vessels carrying only a single topgallant, both that and the fore topsail; but if they carry no topgallant, then both topsails lowered to half mast; vessels with a single topsail, lower the topsail; those without topsails, or close reefed, are not compelled to strike sail. In rough weather or heavy sea, vessels passing are dispensed from showing these honors by a signal from the fortress or guardship.

If a ship omits to pay the proper honors, she is reminded of them by a shot, first ahead, then astern, and then amidships. In this case, the master, or in his stead, the pilot and two of the crew, are required to go ashore, and render an excuse for the omission to lower sail at the right time, and in the regular manner, and the facts stated by way of excuse

or apology must be attested upon oath. If a satisfactory excuse is duly sworn to, the party is exempted from payment of the mulct of three rix dollars, currency, for each gun, but if none such is rendered, the money must be paid. If the vessel escapes, and the ship or captain is detected, a fine is exacted of the party who obtained the clearance.

Denmark is the most ancient maritime power in the Baltic. Sweden first took rank as a maritime nation, under the Vasa dynasty, and Russia became a naval power only after the conquest of Ingermania, Livonia, and Esthonia, from Sweden, in the last century. Although there are several states on the Baltic, which drive a considerable trade by sea, the three before-mentioned powers have exclusive admiralty jurisdiction in these waters. The Danish kings, in particular, have jealously guarded against the assumption of the right of maintaining an armed naval force in this sea. When the Emperor Frederick II. conceived the plan of organizing a navy, by the occupation of Mecklenburg and the aid of the Hanse Towns, he met the most determined resistance from Christian IV. And as King Frederick II., of Denmark, had seized and carried into Copenhagen, in the year 1570, four Dantzic men of war, fitted out by order of Sigismund Augustus, king of Poland, because he would not suffer the erection of an admiralty jurisdiction in the Baltic, by any other power, in like manner, Christian IV. would not allow King Uladislaus, in 1638, to impose new duties at Dantzic or Pillau, and enforce their collection by armed ships, and accordingly these ships were taken by Danish men of war, sent out for that purpose, at the close of that year. The ships, indeed, were released at the prayer of Uladislaus, but the duty was discontinued, and the Polish navy disappeared after the exchange of a few diplomatic broadsides upon the sovereignty of the Baltic. Upon similar grounds, the king of Denmark repeatedly attempted to prevent the erection of a fortress by the Swedes at Barnemund, and the collection of new duties, but to no purpose, as he did not think it expedient to resort to force.

At a later period, the electoral prince of Brandenburg, Frederick William, meditated the establishment of a naval force in the Baltic. But the intimate relations then existing between the courts of Denmark and Brandenburg, did not prevent Christian V. from zealously opposing this scheme, both in 1685 and the years following, and in this he was supported by Sweden, so that the plan was defeated.

The three great Baltic powers, in order to obviate disputes about maritime jurisdiction, salutes between ships, or ships and fortresses, have minutely regulated all these matters. The treaty concluded with Russia, on the 30th October and the 10th November, 1731, stipulates, that off the the coast of Jutland to the Weser, and through the Rattegat to the Baltic, as far as beyond Bornholm and within sight of that island, as also off the coasts of Zealand, Möen, Falster, Laaland, and Femern, as far as the river Trave, which divides Holstein from the territory of Mecklenburg, the Russians shall first salute the Danes, and in like manner, on passing Danish fortresses, castles, or marine batteries, or upon anchoring in sight of them. It is, however, provided, that no salutes shall be fired by either party between the Trave and Bornholm on the west, and the coasts of Livonia and Esthonia, and the Gulf of Finland, on the east.

Although Denmark no longer enjoys her ancient exclusive sovereignty over the Baltic, she has a decided advantage over the other Baltic powers, in the possession of the key of that sea.

The Danish government has, however, always considered itself bound to keep the Baltic clear, not only from pirates, but from privateers, and has, therefore, sometimes even furnished foreign navigators with a convoy of men of war. There are examples of this, from the remotest antiquity. It was especially the duty of the Jarl of the islands, (Eidana Jarl,) to watch over the security of this sea, and the zeal of King Saint Canute, in clearing the Baltic of robbers, was widely celebrated. Christian I. would not tolerate the privateering which the Swedish King Erick, of Pomerania, persisted in authorizing from Gothland, and it was principally for the purpose of checking this, that the possession of that island was so important to Christian. King John detained merchant ships in Oeresund, until he could provide a convoy of men of war to their destined ports, for their protection against the privateers of Lubeck. When Severin Norbye, in the name of Christian II., practised privateering, he was restrained principally by the exertions of the Danish government. Frederick II. labored with the greatest zeal for the security of Oeresund, both in regard to the obstacles interposed by the Swedes to the trade to Narva, and the visits of freebooters to the Baltic. No king was more solicitous for the prevention of such disorders than Christian IV. During the thirty years' war, he constantly maintained a naval force, for the sole purpose of protecting the navigation of the Baltic, and succeeded to that degree, that navigation was prosecuted with the same security during this war, as in the midst of peace.

Since the division of the sovereignty of the Baltic, the kings of Denmark have continued to be equally solicitous for the preservation of the peace of this sea, and on the other hand, they have sometimes availed themselves of their sovereignty over the sound to give weight to their demands, that the neutral mercantile rights of Denmark should not be invaded, in European naval warfare. Frederick III. seized English ships, by way of reprisals for insult, and it was by the same means, that Christian V. procured indemnity to his subjects from the Dutch, who had taken many Danish vessels bound to French ports.

The labors of Frederick VII., for the protection of complete security of trade in the Baltic, are in fresh remembrance. In the proclamation of this monarch, in 1780, during the North American war, it is declared, "that as the Baltic was unquestionably, by its situation and configuration, a close sea, his majesty could not allow the armed ships of the belligerent parties access to the Baltic, for hostile purposes; that the two other northern courts acceded to the same system, which was the more just and natural, inasmuch as all the powers bordering on the Baltic were in the enjoyment of full peace." This was followed by the answer of the French minister of state, De Vergennes, dated Versailles, 25th May, 1780, in it is said, "that his most Christian majesty, who had already manifested his great respect for the sovereignty of the Baltic powers, now that they had adopted the neutral system, would regard the Baltic as constituted a close sea, by the common consent of those powers, (S. M. avait regardé cette mer comme fermée de l'aveu de ces Souverains,) and would, accordingly, order that no French ship should commit acts of hostility within the sound." In the convention concluded between Denmark and Russia at Copenhagen, 9th July, 1780, to which Sweden acceded on the 21st July and 1st August, of the same year, and in the convention between Sweden and Russia, which was immediately approved by special pro-

clamation on the part of Denmark, the same motives are assigned for the joint action of the powers in arming for the protection of the freedom of commerce in the Baltic, and their determination not to suffer it to be disturbed, by armed ships or privateers of the contending parties. This declaration being supported by a considerable fleet of the three naval powers, its end was completely attained.

During the wars occasioned by the French revolution, another convention was concluded between Denmark and Sweden, on the 27th March, 1793, for the protection of their commerce. It is herein set forth that as the Baltic ought to be regarded as a close sea, and inaccessible to other belligerent powers, the same was anew declared a *mare clausum* by the contracting parties, who had resolved to maintain therein the most perfect tranquillity.* Although Russia, for political reasons, was not a party to this convention, a check was steadily put upon the capture of neutral vessels, then so numerous in the Baltic.

The controlling power acquired by the British flag in the course of the war, after 1807, indeed disabled Denmark from protecting the freedom of commerce in these waters, as she had anciently done, but could by no means deprive her of her lawful right so to do.

Art. II.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Commerce is usually considered under two heads, the foreign and home trades; but inasmuch as Pennsylvania is one of a confederacy of states, each exercising almost unlimited sovereignty within its own borders, and yet all, in their relation to foreign states, to be considered as a unit, the subject may more properly be presented in three divisions; first, the *foreign* trade, or interchange of commodities with foreign nations; secondly, the *domestic* trade, or interchange with the other states of the union; and thirdly, the *internal* trade, or that between different sections of the state.

THE FOREIGN TRADE.†

Of the early history of the foreign trade of Pennsylvania, we have but little authentic information. We have every reason, however, to believe that its extent was very limited, until after the establishment of Penn's colony in 1682.

Prior to Penn's embarkation for America, he disposed of 20,000 acres of land to an association, entitled the Free Society of Traders of Pennsylvania, which was formed in England and confirmed by patent, for the avowed purpose of promoting the interests, not only of the stockholders of the company, but of all concerned in the trade of the colony. This company attempted to establish various manufactures and other industrial pursuits in the province. In a letter from Penn to the committee of the society, residing in London, dated "Philadelphia 16th of 6th mo., called Au-

* La Baltique devant toujours être regardée comme une mer fermée et inaccessible à des vaisseaux armés des parties en guerre éloignées, est encore declarée telle de nouveau par les parties contractantes, décidées à en preserver la tranquilité la plus parfaite.

† As the British North American colonies were entirely independent of each other until after the severance of their connexion with the mother country, the trade of Pennsylvania with the others, prior to 1776, is properly included in the foreign trade.

gust," we find mention made of a tannery, a saw mill, and a glass house, a whalery, and a dock, as belonging to it; and also that Penn advised them to attempt the culture of the vine for wine, and the manufacture of linen. These attempts to introduce the culture of the vine, the manufacture of glass, and linen, and the whale fishery, amongst the colonists, did not prove successful; of the further operations of the company we know little or nothing.

In the first year of the establishment of the colony, twenty-six ships arrived with passengers and emigrants, and forty trading vessels great and small. These latter were, no doubt, laden with provisions, furniture, and stores of various kinds for the colonists, and took little if any export cargo. In the next two years, twenty-four more ships arrived with emigrants. For the first few years the attention of the settlers was, necessarily, very much engrossed by the clearing of land, and the culture of grain, for the consumption of the colony; but "trade and commerce, in which the Quakers were known to excel," soon claimed their notice. A trade was opened with the Indians, for furs and skins; and the culture of tobacco was carried on so extensively that in one year, (1688–9,) there were exported fourteen cargoes of the weed. In this branch of agriculture, however, Virginia and Maryland were found too powerful rivals; and it was soon abandoned for the culture of wheat, barley, oats, rye, &c., and the grazing of cattle and cutting of timber: the exports of the province undergoing a corresponding change.

The war between England and France, commencing in 1688 and terminating in 1697, operated injuriously on the interests of the colony. About the latter end of this period we find allusion made to the *poverty* of the province, and to the impediments to its commerce, consequent upon the war; and it is stated that "in Philadelphia even, pieces of tin and lead were current for small change."

The course of trade, from this early period until the separation of the province from the British empire, appears to have undergone but little change, although extended in its range. The exports, consisting of grain, salt provisions, pipe staves, &c., and at a later date, including flour, bread, flaxseed, iron, &c., were not wanted in England, at that time a great grain-exporting country; but found a market in the neighboring provinces and the West Indies; and subsequently also in Portugal, Spain, several European and African ports in the Mediterranean, and the various groups of islands in the North Atlantic adjacent to Africa. The returns from these various branches of foreign trade, excepting a small portion required for the consumption of the province and its trade with the Indians, were all carried to England; or the produce received was sold in other foreign countries and the proceeds remitted to England, where all the available funds of the province were required to pay for the manufactures imported thence, which, from the restrictions imposed by parliament on manufacturing in the colonies, were to a very great amount, embracing almost every article of clothing, and household utensils even of the most simple and common kinds.

The following table exhibits the vast excess of imports over exports, in the trade of the province with Great Britain, from 1697 to the commencement of the war of Independence, and also shows the effect of war and other operative causes, on the amount of importations.

During the war between Great Britain on the one part, and France and

Spain on the other, which continued from 1702 to 1713, the commerce of the province was exposed to repeated depredations by privateers. In 1707–8, the captures of vessels off the capes of the Delaware were so frequent as almost wholly to interrupt the trade, which had in addition, about this period, to bear the exaction of dues for the privilege of navigating the Delaware, levied by order of Governor Evans, at a fort erected at New Castle.

The war between Great Britain and Spain, in 1717 and '18, does not appear to have materially affected the colony.

The year 1722 was one of great commercial embarrassment in the province. The importations appear to have been too great, the country was drained of specie for remittance to England, and there was consequently a deficiency in the circulating medium. The payment of debts was procrastinated, lawsuits multiplied, produce was made a legal tender in payment of debts, executions for debt were stayed, the rate of interest was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent, and the value of coin was raised 25 per cent. These measures naturally tended to destroy confidence in the results of all trading operations; but did not, as was intended, prevent the exportation of specie.

TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA WITH GREAT BRITAIN, FROM 1697 TO 1776, INCLUSIVE.

	Year.	Exports to G. Britain. £ sterling.	Imports. £ sterling.
	*1697,.....	3,347	2,997
	1698,.....	2,720	10,704
	1699,.....	1,477	17,064
	1700,.....	4,608	18,529
	1701,.....	5,220	12,003
Engl'd at war with Fr. and Spain.	1702,.....	4,145	9,342
	1703,.....	5,160	9,899
	1704,.....	2,430	11,819
	1705,.....	1,309	7,206
	1706,.....	4,210	11,037
	1707,.....	786	14,365
	1708,.....	2,120	6,722
	1709,.....	617	5,881
	1710,.....	1,977	8,594
	1711,.....	38	19,408
	1712,.....	1,471	8,464
	1713,.....	178	17,037
	1714,.....	2,663	14,927
	1715,.....	5,461	16,182
	1716,.....	5,193	21,842
Eng. vs. S.	1717,.....	4,499	22,505
	1718,.....	5,588	22,716
	1719,.....	6,564	27,068
	1720,.....	7,928	24,531
	1721,.....	8,037	21,548
	1722,.....	6,882	26,397
	†1723,.....	8,332	15,992
	1724,.....	4,057	30,324
	1725,.....	11,981	42,209
	1726,.....	5,960	37,634
	1727,.....	12,823	31,979
	1728,.....	15,230	37,478
	1729,.....	7,434	29,799
	1730,.....	10,582	48,592
	1731,.....	12,786	44,260
	1732,.....	8,524	41,698
	1733,.....	14,776	40,565
	1734,.....	20,217	54,392
	1735,.....	21,919	48,804
	1736,.....	20,786	61,513
	1737,.....	15,198	11,918
	1738,.....	11,918	61,450
Eng. vs. F. and S. E. vs. S.	1739,.....	8,134	54,452
	1740,.....	15,048	56,751
	1741,.....	17,158	91,010
	1742,.....	8,527	75,295
	1743,.....	9,596	79,340
	1744,.....	7,446	62,214
	1745,.....	10,130	54,280
	1746,.....	15,779	73,699
	1747,.....	3,832	82,404
	1748,.....	12,363	75,330
	1749,.....	14,944	238,637
	1750,.....	28,191	217,713
	1751,.....	23,870	190,917
	1752,.....	29,978	201,666
	1753,.....	38,527	245,644
	1754,.....	30,649	244,647
Eng. vs. Fr.	1755,.....	32,336	144,456
	1756,.....	20,095	200,169
	1757,.....	14,190	168,496
	1758,.....	21,383	260,953
	1759,.....	22,404	498,161
	1760,.....	22,754	707,998

* Peace established this year between England and France.

† First issue of government bills of credit in the province, to supply deficiency of currency occasioned by too large importations.

TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA WITH GREAT BRITAIN FROM 1697 TO 1776, INCLUSIVE—Continued.

	Year.	Exports to G. Britain. £ sterling.	Imports. £ sterling.		Year.	Exports to G. Britain. £ sterling.	Imports. £ sterling.
Peace	1761,.....	39,170	204,067		*1769,.....	26,111	199,909
	1762,.....	38,091	206,199		1770,.....	28,109	134,881
	1763,.....	38,228	284,152		1771,.....	31,615	728,744
	1764,.....	36,258	435,191		1772,.....	29,133	507,909
	1765,.....	25,148	363,368		1773,.....	36,652	426,448
	1766,.....	26,851	327,314		1774,.....	69,611	625,652
	1767,.....	37,641	371,830	War	1775,.....	175,962	1,366
	1768,.....	59,406	432,107		1776,.....	1,421	365

To remedy the evil, in the latter part of this year a scheme for a paper currency was first laid before the Assembly of Pennsylvania; and in March following, after much controversy, a law was enacted for the issue of £15,000 currency, in bills of credit of from 1s. to £1 in value, to be loaned in sums of from £12 to £100, at an interest of 5 per cent per annum, on pledge of real estate, ground rents or plate, of double the value of the advance; said bills to be a legal tender. In the latter part of the same year a further issue of £30,000 was authorized. By this timely relief, and doubtless still more by the increase of industry and economy induced by the recent *hard times*, the commerce of the province was soon revived.

The effect produced may be observed, by reference to the amounts of imports and exports, as well as by the examination of the annexed statement of the commerce of the province and tonnage built during these years.

Years.	Vessels built.	Tonnage.	Vessels cleared.	Tonnage.
1719,.....	...	.....	128	4,514
1720,.....	...	.....	140	3,982
1721,.....	...	.....	111	3,711
1722,.....	10	428	96	3,531
1723,.....	13	507	99	3,942
1724,.....	19	959	119	5,450
1725,.....	...	.....	140	6,665

At various subsequent periods, in 1729, '39, '45 and '46, acts were passed for creating or re-emitting bills of credit. In 1748, when the amount outstanding was £85,000 currency, or £53,333 sterling, a bill to increase the issues was brought before the Assembly; but was postponed on account of an attempt, at that time being made in parliament, to restrain all the American colonies from issuing bills of credit as a circulating medium. In the bill which passed parliament in 1751, prohibiting the northern colonies from creating or re-issuing bills of credit, except on extraordinary occasions, Pennsylvania was not included; her bills having remained at par or nearly so, while those of Massachusetts, owing to excessive issues, had depreciated to less than one-seventh their original value. Encouraged by this favor shown them, the Assembly in 1752 prepared a bill for a fresh issue of £40,000. Franklin, who was chairman of the committee to which the matter was referred, stated in a very forcible and lucid manner the advantages which had accrued to the province, and which might still be anticipated, from a moderate issue of paper currency; the measure, however, being in opposition to the wishes

* Non-importation agreements were adopted in this year at most of the ports in the British North American colonies.

of the proprietaries, did not meet with the approval of the governor, but led to long and angry discussions between him and the Assembly. No further issues were made until the war with the French on the western frontiers, in 1755, rendered them absolutely necessary. In 1730 the imports were to a very large amount, and, probably to assist in liquidating claims on account of a portion of these, an insolvent law was passed. The exportation of the staples of the province about this period was as follows:—

Years.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	Casks bread.	Val. of wheat, flour, bread, and flaxseed. £ currency.
1729,.....	74,800	35,426	9,730	62,473
1730,.....	38,643	38,570	9,622	57,500
1731,.....	53,320	56,639	12,436	62,582

In this latter year the population of Philadelphia was estimated at 12,000. The commerce of the province annually employed about 6,000 tons of shipping; and about 2,000 tons were annually sold in foreign ports, principally West Indian.

The commerce of the province from March 25, 1735, to March 25, 1736, was as follows:—

	Arrivals.	Clearances.		Arrivals.	Clearances.
London,.....	11	10	Brought up,.....	107	124
Bristol, Eng.,.....	9	3	St. Christopher's,..	9	9
Liverpool,.....	2	0	Newfoundland,...	3	1
Ireland, ...	14	23	Boston,.....	17	16
Gibraltar,.....	1	6	Rhode Island,.....	8	7
Lisbon,.....	6	13	New York,.....	4	2
Cadiz,.....	6	2	Maryland,.....	7	13
Madeira,.....	7	5	Virginia,.....	5	2
Turk's island,.....	3	0	North Carolina,...	7	5
Antigua, ...	20	20	South Carolina,...	1	15
Barbadoes,.....	19	26	Georgia,.....	1	2
Jamaica,.....	9	16	Not specified,.....	30	22
Carried up,.	107	124	Total,.....	199	212

Of the arrivals, 51 were ships, 13 snows, 44 brigs, and the remainder smaller vessels.

Hostilities between Great Britain and Spain were recommenced in 1739; and in the following year the enemy kept several privateers off the American coast, which cruised successfully against the colonial commerce. In 1743 war was declared between Great Britain and France. In 1746, the enemy, finding the Delaware unprotected, made many captures, ascending the river as high as New Castle, and even threatening Philadelphia. In May, 1748, the city was again thrown into a state of great alarm, and batteries were erected for its defence, owing to the appearance of a Spanish privateer in the bay. To retaliate in some measure upon the enemy, two privateers, the Wilmington and the Delaware, were fitted out and sent on a cruise.

The restoration of peace in 1749 gave a powerful impulse to commerce. The imports from Great Britain in this one year were nearly equal in amount to those of any three consecutive years preceding. The values of exports of wheat, flour, bread and flaxseed were as follows:—in 1749, £148,104 currency; in 1750, £155,175, and in 1751, £187,457; and the number of vessels cleared from 1749 to 1752, averaged annually 403; the population of Philadelphia being estimated at 15,000. This activity

in trade continued, despite the refusal of the governor to increase the paper currency, until the difficulties with the French and Indians on the western frontier, in 1755.

On the 4th March, 1753, the schooner Argo, Captain Swaine, was despatched by the merchants of Philadelphia, in search of a northwest passage to India. Touching in New England, he entered Hudson's straits and came in sight of the island of Resolution. Vast quantities of driving ice forced him out of the straits, into which having in vain attempted to re-enter, and the season for discovery on the west side of the bay being over, he shaped his course for the coast of Labrador, along which he sailed from 56° to 65° north latitude, discovering six inlets, to the heads of all which he sailed and prepared charts of them. The vessel returned in safety to Philadelphia, whence she was again despatched on a similar voyage, under the command of the same captain, in 1754. From this voyage, Captain Swaine returned, without success, in October of the same year, having had three of his crew killed by the Indians. The merchants of the city expressed general satisfaction with Captain Swaine's proceedings, and made him a handsome present. These we believe to have been the earliest voyages of discovery made by any of the North American colonists.

During the continuance of the *seven years'* war (which was commenced by a collision between the English and French troops on the western frontier of Pennsylvania, in 1755, although war was not declared until the following year) the commerce of the province suffered severely; the value of imports from Great Britain varying from £144,456 sterling in 1755, to £707,998 sterling in 1760. This latter sum, it is probable, from its vast amount, included military stores. Serious losses were occasioned to the mercantile community by the provincial government prohibiting the exportation of provisions and military stores to French ports, in 1756 and '7.

The restoration of peace with France and Spain, in 1763, removed many restrictions from commerce; but found the province burthened with a heavy debt, incurred in carrying on the war, her people impoverished, her merchants largely indebted to those of the mother country for goods imported, and trade generally depressed.

The continuance of difficulties with the Indians on the western frontier, after the restoration of peace with France, for some time kept the province in a state of excitement, (the boldness of the incursions alarming even the Philadelphians,) and tended to increase the embarrassment of trade.

The effect of these disturbing influences had not passed away when the British parliament, in 1764, commenced a course of injustice and oppression towards the North American colonies, which at length forced them into open rebellion, and resulted in their independence. With a fixed determination to resist the collection of all taxes imposed without their consent, the colonists met the repeated attempts of the home government to force these odious measures upon them, by non-consuming and non-importation agreements, and at length by open resistance. Our limits preclude more than a passing notice of these exciting events, which, however, are detailed in every history of the American revolution. The influence of the non-importation agreements on commerce may be seen by contrasting the value of imports from Great Britain in 1769, (£199,909

sterling) when these agreements were generally adopted throughout the rebellious colonies, with that of the imports in 1771 (£728,744 sterling,) when the non-importation restrictions were removed, save in reference to tea.

The following view of the trade of the province, given by Franklin in 1766, during his examination before the British House of Commons, in reference to the repeal of the stamp act, shows it to have been so completely tributary to that of Great Britain, as to leave little cause for regret at the separation of the two governments, which shortly followed. The imports from Great Britain into the province, he says, are computed at more than £500,000 sterling, annually, and the exports to Great Britain at only £40,000 sterling, the balance being paid by the produce of the province carried to the British, French, Spanish, Danish and Dutch West India Islands; to New England, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Carolina and Georgia; and to different parts of Europe, as Spain, Portugal and Italy; for which either money, bills of exchange or other commodities, suitable for a remittance to England, are received. These, together with the profits of the merchants and mariners, as well as the freights earned in their circuitous voyages, all finally centre in Great Britain, to pay for British manufactures used in the province, or sold to foreigners by the American traders.

Notwithstanding the measures of the home government, calculated, if not intended to injure the province, her resources were rapidly developed; and commerce, despite the many vexatious restrictions imposed, prospered, until stopped by a state of open warfare. We append a statement of the commerce in the years 1771–2–3: the exports in the years 1774–5 being to a still greater amount.

	Value of Exports.	Clearances.		
Years.	£ sterling.	Sq. rigged vessels.	Sl'ps and schrs.	Total tonnage.
1771,.....	631,554	361	391	46,654
1772,.....	784,254	370	390	46,841
1773,.....	720,135	426	370	46,972

From 1776 until 1783 Pennsylvania had little or no foreign trade; her merchants, however, were not idle; but amongst the foremost in patriotically sustaining the struggle for independence, by their example, their money and their personal services.

The first bank established in the United States was opened at Philadelphia, July 17, 1780, under the title of the Bank of Pennsylvania, with a capital of £300,000 currency; the especial object of its creation being to supply the army with provisions. This bank, we believe, continued in existence until the Bank of North America went into operation, January 7, 1782. The latter was the only bank in Pennsylvania, until the United States Bank commenced business in 1791.

With the restoration of peace in 1783, commerce was resumed; but much remained to be done in order to place it in a prosperous condition. Abroad, new relations had to be formed with countries whose sovereigns, with the return of peace, were disposed to pursue their old protective policy for the benefit of their own trade and commerce, and who looked with an evil eye upon our democratic institutions. At home, matters of still greater moment called for regulation: a currency deranged; public and private credit almost prostrate; tariffs various in the different states, and conflicting and fluctuating in a manner ruinous to trade and demoralizing

to the community, by the temptation offered for smuggling:—these were some of the main depressing evils under which commerce labored, and which had yet to be removed ere it could prosper. The imports of manufactured goods, shortly after the return of peace, it is true, were to a large amount; (that is, from Great Britain in 1783, £245,258; in 1784, £689,491;) but this was no evidence of returning prosperity; on the contrary it tended still further to embarrass, as the indebtedness incurred was far beyond the means of payment.

These difficulties continued throughout the United States without material abatement, until, by the adoption of the federal constitution, in 1789, the thirteen republics unitedly placed themselves among the great powers of the earth. This compact not only increased the physical force of the republic, but, by the abolition of all transit duties between the states of the Union, and the prohibition of preference of any kind to the ports of one state over those of another, in the laws regulating commerce or revenue, it produced friendly feelings and a community of interests, in the different sections of the Union, where before had existed jealousy and bitter rivalry. Commercial relations were now entered into with the principal European nations, trade and commerce revived, the resources of the country were rapidly developed, and by the establishment of the bank of the United States, in 1791, a currency universally accredited was furnished. In the improved condition of the Union above noted, Pennsylvania fully participated.

A new era now opened to the commerce of the United States, in which the wars occasioned by the French revolution exerted a most powerful influence. By reference to the following table of imports, exports, duties, drawbacks, tonnage, and arrivals, from 1791 to 1841 inclusive, the effect produced on the foreign trade, by causes to which we shall allude, may be noted.

In 1792 France commenced her wars with the other European powers, and excepting an interval of peace of about fourteen months, in 1802–3, continued them without intermission until the abdication of Napoleon in 1814. On the return of the emperor in 1815, hostilities were renewed, and finally terminated in this year.

The vast numbers, in Europe, diverted from agricultural and other industrial pursuits by these wars, created a large market for the produce of Pennsylvania; while the immense naval armaments of the combatants, in all parts of the ocean, rendering it necessary to employ neutral ships to carry the produce of the French, Spanish, and Dutch colonies to the parent states, gave profitable employment to a large amount of her tonnage. Nor did her merchants rest satisfied with acting merely as carriers; they embarked in the trade on their own account, and also imported largely from China and India, for re-exportation to European markets; that is, in 1806, there arrived at Philadelphia from Canton 12 ships and 1 brig, of an aggregate tonnage of 4,226 tons—all with very valuable cargoes. Large fortunes were rapidly made; and many persons, before engaged in other employments, were induced to turn merchants. The commerce of the United States prospered to a degree unprecedented in the history of any nation, and in this prosperity Philadelphia, through which passed the whole foreign trade of the state, shared largely; her population increasing from 42,000 in 1790 to upwards of 96,000 in 1810.

Shortly after the declaration of hostilities between France and Eng-

land, these two nations commenced issuing decrees and orders in council, and laying embargoes, of a most unjust and arbitrary character, for the avowed purpose of restricting the trade of neutrals with the enemy. Nor were the two great maritime powers of Europe alone in these restrictive measures; but by their influence or commands, Spain and other European governments followed in their footsteps.

In 1794 a treaty was concluded with England, by which she engaged to pay $10,000,000 to the United States, as a compensation for property illegally taken, under her orders in council.

In 1798, in consequence of the arbitrary measures of the French government, commercial relations between the United States and that nation were suspended, and partial hostilities followed, but no declaration of war ensued. These difficulties were settled by treaty in 1800.

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF PENNSYLVANIA, FROM 1791 TO 1841, INCLUSIVE.

	Exports.						
	Dom. produce or manufacture.	For. produce or manufacture.	Total.	Imports.	Duties on for. merchandise imported.	Drawbacks on for. merchandise re-exp'ted.	Registered tonnage.
Years.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Tons.*
1791,	.....	.....	3,436,093	.....	1,475,428	8,976	53,898
1792,	.....	.....	3,820,662	.....	1,138,863	37,753	65,212
1793,	.....	.....	6,958,836	.....	1,996,337	102,659	60,925
1794,	.....	.....	6,643,092	.....	2,000,091	502,447	67,895
1795,	.....	.....	11,518,260	.....	3,053,109	752,550	83,624
1796,	.....	.....	17,513,866	.....	3,646,271	1,586,065	90,569
1797,	.....	.....	11,446,291	.....	2,907,894	1,086,839	88,401
1798,	.....	.....	8,915,463	.....	2,086,714	1,018,127	85,477
1799,	.....	.....	12,431,967	.....	2,224,313	955,264	90,944
1800,	.....	.....	11,949,679	.....	3,181,101	1,785,109	95,632
1801,	.....	.....	17,438,193	.....	3,702,898	1,540,701	109,036
1802,	.....	.....	12,677,475	.....	2,727,365	1,297,662	64,637
1803,	4,021,214	3,504,496	7,525,710	.....	2,240,715	561,041	67,629
1804,	4,178,713	6,851,444	11,030,157	.....	3,507,038	872,238	71,199
1805,	4,365,240	9,397,012	13,762,252	.....	3,652,387	1,319,869	77,239
1806,	3,765,313	13,809,389	17,574,702	.....	5,100,657	2,052,551	86,728
1807,	4,809,616	12,055,128	16,864,744	.....	5,197,806	2,012,543	93,993
1808,	1,066,527	2,946,803	4,013,330	.....	2,599,673	928,568	94,659
1809,	4,238,358	4,810,883	9,049,241	.....	2,318,699	894,984	106,622
1810,	4,751,634	6,241,764	10,993,398	.....	3,332,377	879,527	109,629
1811,	5,694,447	3,865,670	9,560,117	.....	2,364,635	510,328	78,518
1812,	4,660,457	1,313,293	5,973,750	.....	2,474,990	378,936	71,281
1813,	3,249,623	327,494	3,577,117	.....	503,593	185,821	64,537
1814,	.....	.....	.....	.....	277,757	3,227	64,183
1815,	3,569,551	1,024,368	4,593,919	.....	7,199,699	95,806	77,199
1816,	4,486,329	2,709,917	7,196,246	.....	6,285,455	746,636	77,731
1817,	5,538,003	3,197,589	8,735,592	.....	4,307,790	702,819	80,513
1818,	5,045,901	3,713,501	8,759,402	.....	4,540,360	788,574	58,201
1819,	2,919,679	3,374,109	6,293,788	.....	3,848,630	570,274	59,626
1820,	2,948,879	2,794,670	5,743,549	.....	2,703,402	555,703	59,458
1821,	2,832,387	4,559,380	7,391,767	8,158,922	2,719,996	474,394	59,296
1822,	3,575,147	5,472,655	9,047,802	11,874,170	3,648,745	310,956	61,237
1823,	3,139,809	6,477,383	9,617,192	13,696,770	3,991,687	612,037	61,409
1824,	3,182,694	6,182,199	9,364,893	11,865,531	4,311,926	939,322	62,771
1825,	3,936,133	7,333,848	11,269,981	15,041,797	5,270,030	998,778	65,590
1826,	3,158,711	5,173,011	8,331,722	13,551,779	5,183,724	1,251,405	63,443
1827,	3,391,296	4,184,537	7,575,833	11,212,935	4,188,915	1,053,105	61,700
1828,	3,116,001	2,935,479	6,051,480	12,884,408	5,082,344	802,474	66,840
1829,	2,617,152	1,472,783	4,089,935	10,100,152	3,574,818	708,970	50,235
1830,	2,924,452	1,367,341	4,291,793	8,702,122	3,542,977	516,311	47,979
1831,	3,594,302	1,919,411	5,513,713	12,124,083	4,372,533	326,607	51,294

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF PENNSYLVANIA, FROM 1791 TO 1841, INCLUSIVE—Continued.

Years.	Exports. Dom. produce or manufacture. *Dollars.*	Exports. For. produce or manufacture. *Dollars.*	Total. *Dollars.*	Imports. *Dollars.*	Duties on for. merchandise imported. *Dollars.*	Drawbacks on for. merchandise re-exported. *Dollars.*	Regist'd tonnage. *Tons.*
1832,	2,008,991	1,507,075	3,516,066	10,678,358	3,501,397	402,972	45,956
1833,	2,671,300	1,407,651	4,078,951	10,451,250	2,985,278	697,927	49,022
1834,	2,031,803	1,957,943	3,989,746	10,479,268	2,111,837	295,870	51,441
1835,	2,416,099	1,323,176	3,739,275	12,389,937	2,506,281	101,812	51,588
1836,	2,627,651	1,343,904	3,971,555	15,068,233	3,192,007	134,473	51,035
1837,	2,565,712	1,275,887	3,841,599	11,680,111	.....	.....	39,056
1838,	2,481,543	995,608	3,477,151	9,360,371	.....	.....	42,266
1839,	4,148,211	1,151,204	5,299,415	15,050,715	.....	.....	48,569
1840,	5,736,456	1,083,689	6,820,145	8,464,882	.....	.....	52,268
1841,	4,404,863	747,638	5,152,501	10,346,698	.....	.....	47,380
1842,	3,293,841	476,913	3,770,727	7,385,858	.....	.....	.....

The peace of Amiens, in 1802, restoring quiet to Europe, materially reduced the exports of Pennsylvania; but by the resumption of hostilities, in the following year, a fresh impetus was given to her commerce, which was only stayed by the embargo, to which we shall presently refer.

The *continental system*, Napoleon's favorite scheme for crushing the power of his great enemy, by prohibiting the importation of British produce and manufactures on the continent, was commenced by the issue of his celebrated Berlin decree, on November 21, 1806, declaring the British islands in a state of blockade, and prohibiting all commerce and correspondence with them. In retaliation, his Britannic majesty in council published three orders, bearing date November 11, 1807, (other orders previously issued not proving effective,) by which, in addition to restrictions too numerous and complex to admit of specification here, all neutral vessels trading with France or her allies, were ordered, on pain of condemnation, to stop at a British port, submit their cargoes to inspection, and pay a duty on the same.

The Milan decree, dated December 17, 1807, was issued by Napoleon as a rejoinder to the obnoxious orders in council, and declared that any vessel which had submitted to search by an English ship, or to a voyage to England for that object, or had paid any tax whatsoever to the English government, should be deemed denationalized, and a good and lawful prize.

On the 22d December, 1807, the United States government, prior to the receipt of the three orders in council, but with advices which satisfied them that measures of such a character were about being taken by the British government, laid an embargo on all vessels in the ports and harbors of the United States. This measure, unpopular as it was with the mercantile community, and deeply injurious to their interests, appeared to be the only alternative left the government, unless disposed to engage in a war. The great falling off in the exports of Pennsylvania, in 1808, and the consequent depreciation in the value of ships, was severely felt in Philadelphia, at that time the greatest commercial city of the Union.

The *long* embargo, as it is usually denominated, was raised March 1, 1809, and on May 20th of the same year, non-intercourse was established with England and France. Great efforts were made, by the United States government, to induce the British and French governments to repeal their unjust orders and decrees. An arrangement of this character

was effected with the British minister at Washington, and, in consequence, trade was resumed with England, June 10, 1809; but the British government refusing to confirm the act of its agent, non-intercourse with that country was again established. Napoleon had long endeavored and hoped to drive the Americans into a war with England. The opening of the trade with that country, while non-intercourse existed with France, was, therefore, a source of great vexation to him; he, however, dissembled his anger until the ports of his European allies were well filled with American shipping, when, in the month of March, 1810, by his Rambouillet decree, he ordered them to be seized. In this way vessels and goods, to the amount of many millions of dollars, were confiscated almost without the pretence of justice.

The laws directing non-intercourse with England and France, were repealed by the United States in May, 1810, and a law enacted admitting to her ports the commercial vessels of those nations; but excluding their armed ships, and providing that if either of the above nations should modify its edicts before the 3d March, 1811, so that they should cease to violate neutral commerce, of which fact the president was to give notice by proclamation, and the other nation should not, within three months after, pursue a like course, commercial intercourse with the first might be renewed, but not with the other.

Napoleon was shortly after induced to give a promise of rather doubtful import; but which was construed, by the United States government, to be an engagement to repeal his Berlin and Milan decrees, provided the British government would withdraw their retaliatory orders in council. This the British government declined doing, on the ground that Napoleon's promise was not what the Americans chose to consider it.

Non-intercourse with Great Britain was again resumed by the United States government, November 10, 1810, and, after several engagements between the armed vessels of the two nations, war was declared June 19, 1812, four days after which the orders in council were repealed. The right of searching American vessels for British born subjects, and of reclaiming them wherever found, which was asserted by the enemy, may be considered the main ground for the continuance of hostilities.

During the war, the commerce of Pennsylvania was limited in its extent, and, in addition to the enemy abroad, had to contend with an evil at home, almost as disastrous in its effects, viz: a deranged currency. With the expiration of the charter of the United States Bank, in 1811, a mania arose for the creation of banks, under the influence of which forty-one, with an aggregate capital of $17,000,000, were chartered by Pennsylvania, in 1814; thirty-seven of these going into operation. In the autumn of this year, a general suspension of specie payments, by all the banks south and west of the New England states, followed. The issues of their irredeemable paper were increased, and on July 1, 1816, the paper of the Philadelphia banks was at a depreciation of 17 to 18 per cent; while that of the banks at Pittsburgh and the western part of the state was at 25 per cent discount. That this undue expansion of the currency exerted a powerful influence on commerce, can scarcely be doubted. To this cause, in some degree at least, may be attributed the vast amount of imports into the United States, in 1815–16; paying a handsome profit to the early operators, but entailing heavy losses and bankruptcy upon a much larger number.

The second Bank of the United States commenced operations January 7, 1817; and in February entered into a compact with the state banks along the seaboard, in accordance with which they immediately resumed specie payments. Efficient measures for a contraction of the paper currency to a sound state do not appear, however, to have been taken until 1819; when the distress consequent upon this course of action was severely felt, not only by commercial men, but by the community of Pennsylvania generally. Upon the history of the contractions and expansions of the currency, from this last named period until the present time, which have exerted a most potent influence, not only upon the commerce of this state but on that of the world, our limits preclude us from entering.

On the restoration of peace, in 1815, the foreign trade of Pennsylvania had to seek new channels. The great European powers, being now at peace, turned their attention to the encouragement and protection of their own commerce and navigation. The carrying trade between colonies and their parent states, which had given employment to so much Pennsylvania tonnage, was now, of course, confined to vessels of the nation owning the colonies; and in the case of the British West India islands, the direct trade between the United States and them, was laid under such restrictions as to confine it almost exclusively to British ships as carriers.

The commercial regulations established by foreign governments since this period have exerted a powerful influence on the foreign trade of the state, by laying such heavy duties on her exports as to limit or prohibit their consumption; but a mere allusion to the various operations of these would far exceed our limits.

Another source of injury to the foreign trade, has been the frequent change in the tariffs laid by the United States government; and probably the detriment to the commercial and manufacturing interests, arising from this frequent fluctuation, may be considered as greater than that produced by the imposition of a high protective duty on the one hand, or a low duty, levied merely to defray the expenses of government, without regard to the protection of American manufactures, on the other.

The tariff of 1816, levied duties, avowedly for the purpose of protecting American manufactures. In 1818 and in 1824, changes were made lessening these rates. In 1828, the duties on articles constituting the principal manufactures of the Union were increased; in 1832, again reduced; but were still so obnoxious to one of the states of the confederacy, as to induce her to threaten to nullify the acts of the general government. In the following year, the famous compromise act was passed, gradually reducing the rates of the high protective duties to a minimum rate in 1842. In 1841, the duties were increased; in 1842, the finances of the general government rendered a further increase necessary, and, ere another year rolls past, it seems likely that some further alteration will add its weight to the argument, that the commercial policy of the United States is *ceaseless change.*

Among the causes influencing the foreign trade we must now allude to one more local in its character than those above noted. Shortly after the restoration of peace, in 1815, the attention of many intelligent minds was directed to the improvement of the means of internal communication with the great lakes and the valley of the Mississippi. The state of New York, by the completion of the Erie canal, in 1825, was the first state of the Union to carry out these schemes, and to reap her reward from the

vast increase of her trade with the west. Pennsylvania shortly after embarked in a similar enterprise, and Maryland was not slow to follow in her footsteps. Massachusetts, more recently, has put in her claim for a share of the trade with the west. Since the cost of transportation from an Atlantic port to a place of consumption in the west is as essentially a part of the cost of the merchandise to the consumer as its original cost on the seaboard, it is a truth self-evident, that no commercial emporium, depending for its prosperity upon such trade, can continue long to thrive, after a rival city has opened with the country whose trade is sought, a communication by means of which the cost of transportation is materially reduced. This simple truth it was that led to the construction of the various lines of internal improvements, connecting Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Boston with the west.

That Pennsylvania and Philadelphia have not derived nearly so great a benefit in their trade with the west, from the construction of these internal improvements, as has accrued to the state and city of New York, we apprehend no one will doubt; nor, unless the cost of transportation on the Pennsylvania works can be put at an equally low rate with that on those of the neighboring states, can it be doubted, that Philadelphia must take her rank amongst the great manufacturing, rather than the commercial cities of the Union.

In concluding this historical sketch of the foreign trade of Pennsylvania, we append a tabular statement exhibiting its condition, along with that of the foreign trade of the United States, as shown by the exports at three several periods: first, for five years previous to the long embargo; secondly, for five years subsequent to the late war; and thirdly, for five years from 1837 to 1841.

AGGREGATE EXPORTS FROM PENNSYLVANIA TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

5 years.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.	Year.	Est. pop. of Phila.	Est. pop. of Penn.
1803 to 1807,	$21,140,096	$45,617,469	$66,757,565	1805	78,000	700,000
1816 to 1820,	20,938,791	15,789,786	36,728,577	1818	105,000	1,000,000
1837 to 1841,	19,336,785	5,254,026	24,590,811	1839	222,000	1,684,000

AGGREGATE EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

5 years.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.	Year.	Est. pop. of U. States.
1803 to 1807,	$216,013,759	$222,931,482	$438,945,241	1805	6,200,000
1816 to 1820,	309,610,311	93,097,033	402,707,344	1818	9,100,000
1837 to 1841,	515,410,482	85,461,675	600,872,157	1839	16,600,000

By the above statements it appears that the exports of the produce of the United States from Pennsylvania were less in the last than in either of the former periods, while the exports of domestic goods from the United States have been steadily and rapidly increasing. In the re-exportation of foreign goods the falling off is much greater.

The subjoined statement of exports and imports at Philadelphia, (through which passes the whole foreign trade of the state, excepting a very small trade at Presque Isle,) for the fiscal year 1842, shows a still further decline.

VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS AT PHILADELPHIA FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPT. 30, 1842.

	Exports.		
Countries.	Dom. produce or manufacture.	For. produce or manufacture.	Total.
1. British West Indies,.....	$567,483	$2,345	$569,828
2. England,.....	397,297	30,727	428,024
3. Spanish West Indies,.....	358,055	60,996	419,051

VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS AT PHILADELPHIA, etc.—Continued.

Exports—Continued.

Countries.	Dom. produce or manufacture.	For. produce or manufacture.	Total.
4. Brazil,	$307,451	$100,968	$408,419
5. British Am. colonies,	378,134	520	378,654
6. Buenos Ayres,	199,219	41,784	241,003
7. Colombian ports,	162,888	25,671	188,559
8. Danish West Indies,	168,689	10,464	179,153
9. Hanse Towns,	121,773	35,319	157,092
10. Br. and Dutch East Indies,	123,485	399	123,884
11. Sicily,	109,108	10,827	119,935
12. Chili,	100,001	13,754	113,755
13. Hayti,	67,400	4,893	72,293
14. Italy,	16,851	44,803	61,654
15. Swedish West Indies,	59,749	1,621	61,370
16. Gibraltar,	35,971	24,860	60,831
17. Holland,	23,692	27,291	50,983
18. Africa,	44,792	2,696	47,488
19. Trieste and Adriatic,	2,514	30,628	33,142
20. France on Atlantic,	17,820	1,760	19,580
21. Texas,	12,994	222	13,216
22. French West Indies,	9,150	1,374	10,524
23. Mexico,	7,037	2,991	10,028
24. Teneriffe and Canaries,	2,261	.....	2,261
Total,	$3,293,814	$476,913	$3,770,727

Imports.

Countries.	Value.	Countries.	Value.
1. England,	$3,521,170	15. Chili,	$71,600
2. Spanish West Indies,	970,903	16. Br. and Dutch E. Indies,	55,338
3. Brazil,	724,735	17. Mexico,	51,089
4. Colombian ports,	483,946	18. Sicily,	43,521
5. Hanse Towns,	380,486	19. Teneriffe and Canaries,	22,649
6. Buenos Ayres,	272,017	20. Azores,	17,230
7. Spain on Mediterranean,	134,922	21. Ireland,	8,926
8. Hayti,	107,777	22. Swedish West Indies,	8,696
9. France on Atlantic,	87,976	23. Africa,	5,735
10. Danish West Indies,	83,882	24. Portugal,	5,061
11. Italy,	82,109	25. Gibraltar,	106
12. British Am. colonies,	82,028		
13. Holland,	80,106	Total,	$7,381,788
14. British West Indies,	79,780		

Our limits preclude the specification of the articles forming the principal items of export and import to and from the several countries named. Of domestic exports, flour manufactured in Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Ohio, forms by far the largest item. Corn meal, wheat, and corn, from the two first named states, are also exported largely. Tobacco, cotton, pork, lard, naval stores, rice, bark, &c., from the western and southern states; fish, oil, sperm candles, cotton manufactures, &c., from the New England states; manufactures of iron, refined sugar, soap and candles, manufactured tobacco, furniture and various other manufactures of Philadelphia; lumber, butter, cheese, and numerous articles, the agricultural produce of Pennsylvania, compose the principal part of the remaining sum. The imports consist principally of manufactures of wool, iron, and other metals, silk, cotton, linen, &c., from England and continental Europe; coffee, sugar, molasses, rum, hides, mahogany, dye-woods, manufactured tobacco, &c., from South America and the West Indies.

The total exports in 1842, exceed those of only three years since 1803,

omitting the period of the war with Great Britain. The exports of domestic produce in 1842, exceed those of seventeen years during the same period. The imports for 1842 are less in amount than those of any year since 1821, when official records of value were first made.

THE DOMESTIC TRADE.

The constitution of the United States, as before mentioned, prohibits all transit duties on goods passing from one state of the Union to another, and releases vessels employed in the coasting trade from the necessity of *entering*. By this wise provision for the extension of trade, custom-houses between the different states are rendered unnecessary, and those on the seaboard, or at the great commercial emporiums of the interior, take no account of the merchandise passing from one section of the Union to another. In the absence of official data as to the extent of this important branch of trade, we purpose giving a hasty sketch of its course, or the channels through which it flows.

With the increase of population and of facilities for the transportation of merchandise, by the improvement of county roads, and the construction of turnpike roads, canals, and railroads, the interchange of commodities with neighboring states has steadily and rapidly increased; while the application of steam to river navigation has rendered doubly valuable the noble streams of Pennsylvania, as a means of extending her commercial operations. By these various channels of trade, and by the waters of the Atlantic, together with those of the various navigable streams emptying into it, the produce of the state, to an amount far exceeding that exported to foreign countries, is distributed through a large portion of the Union.

The domestic trade of *Northern Pennsylvania* is very limited in its extent, this region being but thinly populated. Its principal exports are lumber, coal, oats, and neat cattle, together with some wool and butter. By means of the port of Erie or Presque Isle, a communication is opened between the western part of this region and the great lakes, and trade is carried on with many of the towns on their shores. The tonnage of Presque Isle has been as follows, in the years 1832 to 1841, inclusive:—

Year.	Tons.	Year.	Tons.
1832,.....	967	1837,.....	2,993
1833,.....	981	1838,.....	3,216
1834,.....	1,302	1839,.....	3,632
1835,.....	1,730	1840,.....	3,369
1836,.....	1,877	1841,.....	2,820

The Blossburgh and Corning railroad, the Allegheny and Susquehannah rivers, and the turnpike and county roads, at wide intervals traversing this section of the state, facilitate interchange of commodities with the neighboring counties and some of the large towns, in the interior of New York state. No inconsiderable portion of the produce of the western part of this region passes down the Allegheny river to the towns bordering on the Ohio river, although a much larger part finds a market at Pittsburgh. From the head waters of the Susquehannah river, large quantities of lumber are annually sent to Baltimore.

The imports of this region, excepting the large supplies derived by internal trade with Pittsburgh, are principally from New York city and state, and are similar in character to those hereafter mentioned as taken by the north-eastern section of the state.

Western Pennsylvania, with its coal, iron, flour, wheat, lumber, wool and manufactures of various kinds which are exported to a great amount, has access to the interior of Ohio and to the lakes, by means of the Pennsylvania and Ohio or Cross-cut canal and the Sandy and Beaver canal; by the National road to Wheeling on the one hand, and Baltimore on the other; by the internal improvements of the state to the city last named, or via Philadelphia, to ports on the Atlantic; and by the Ohio river to all parts of the valley of the Mississippi.

Pittsburgh, the great manufacturing city and commercial emporium of western Pennsylvania, sends her manufactures of iron, glass, cotton, &c., throughout the vast extent of country bordering on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, as well as to the rapidly improving region extending along the lakes. In return are received drafts on the Atlantic cities or New Orleans, or the varied produce of the several states, viz: pork, beef, lard, butter, flour, hemp, tobacco, cotton, sugar, molasses, &c.; together with a large part of her supply of coffee, imported at New Orleans. A portion of the above named articles, as pork, lard, flour, hemp and tobacco, is re-exported from Pittsburgh to Baltimore; and a still larger portion finds a market in Philadelphia, for home consumption or exportation. With the proceeds of the sales of these articles, and of large quantities of flour and wool, the produce of western Pennsylvania, together with drafts on the Atlantic cities received from sales to the west, she purchases in the Atlantic cities, for the consumption of her own citizens or the supply of a large extent of country in western Pennsylvania and Ohio, the cotton, woollen and leather manufactures, the bonnets, and other articles the manufactures of New England, and various foreign imports; that is, manufactures of wool, silk, cotton, linen, steel and other metals; porcelain and earthern wares, tea, spices, dried fruit, wine, brandy, &c.

Annexed is the tonnage of the port of Pittsburgh in the years 1832 to 1841 inclusive. The sudden reduction observable in some of the years may be accounted for by the sale of steamboats, great numbers of which are built here for towns on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers.

Year.	Tons.	Year.	Tons.
1832,.....	10,092	1837,.....	12,652
1833,.....	11,713	1838,.....	11,865
1834,.....	13,272	1839,.....	11,865
1835,.....	13,272	1840,.....	12,000
1836,.....	10,767	1841,.....	10,343

According to Harris's Directory, the number of steamboats owned in whole or in part, in the district of Pittsburgh, in 1841, was eighty-nine, of an aggregate tonnage of 12,436 tons.

Southern Pennsylvania, whose exports consist principally of grain, flour, iron, leather, &c., finds a market for a large part of these in Baltimore, and the neighboring counties of Maryland and Virginia. The National road, connecting with the internal improvements of Maryland, opens a communication between Baltimore and the western part of this region; while the eastern portion sends its produce by the Baltimore and Susquehannah or Franklin railroads, or by several turnpikes, into Maryland; or by the internal improvements of Pennsylvania and the Susquehannah river, or Tidewater canal to Baltimore, or more largely to Philadelphia for exportation or home consumption. In return are received goods of a description similar to those above mentioned as purchased in the Atlantic cities for Pittsburgh.

Central Pennsylvania, embracing the greater part of the valley of the Susquehannah and the country bordering on the main line of the internal improvements of the state, west of the Susquehannah river, makes use of this river and these canals and railroads, together with the Tidewater canal, as outlets for its large exports. A market is found for its produce, consisting of wheat and other grains, flour, iron, lumber, coal, &c., at Baltimore, and to a greater extent, probably, via Philadelphia, at the various other Atlantic ports. The goods imported are of a character similar to those taken at Pittsburgh.

North Eastern Pennsylvania, embracing a portion of the anthracite coal fields of the state, exports lumber and some agricultural produce, principally oats, to the neighboring towns of New York and New Jersey; neat cattle and butter also to the same markets, and to New York city; and coal in large quantities to New York city and intermediate places, and to the Atlantic New England states. The principal channels for its exports, which are moderate in amount, are the Lehigh river, the Delaware and Hudson canal, and several turnpike roads. In return, articles such as enumerated as taken by Pittsburgh, excluding the more expensive and luxurious, are received from New York city.

South Eastern Pennsylvania—embracing the earliest settled and most populous counties of the state, rich in agricultural products; together with other counties, abounding in anthracite coal and iron—passes most of its exports through Philadelphia.

New York and the New England states bordering on the Atlantic take the largest amount of this produce, consisting principally of coal, flour, wheat, corn, &c. The demand for Pennsylvania bread stuffs in Boston has, however, diminished since the completion of the railroad connecting it with Albany.

In return, Philadelphia receives from the New England states their manufactures of cotton and wool, shoes, bonnets, fish, oil, and various other articles, the produce or manufactures of these states; together with many foreign goods: and from New York, English, French, Chinese, and various other foreign goods too numerous to specify: the balance being greatly against Philadelphia, both in her trade with New England and New York.

To the neighboring states of New Jersey and Delaware the exports are to a large amount, consisting of coal, lime, iron, and various manufactures of Pennsylvania; and the manufactures and produce of the New England states and foreign countries generally, especially manufactures of cotton, wool, leather and iron; sugar, coffee and tea.

The imports from New Jersey consist of agricultural produce generally, and those from Delaware, of flour, corn meal, wheat, corn, bark, &c.

The trade with Maryland is to a very limited extent, and similar in its character to that with Delaware. Most of the freight passing between Philadelphia and Baltimore consists of goods *in transitu* between the latter city and New York, or the New England states.

The exports from Philadelphia to Virginia are to a moderate amount, and consist of articles much the same as those specified in reference to Pittsburgh. In return, tobacco, wheat, corn, and some bituminous coal and cotton yarn are received.

To North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama, the exports are similar in character to those sent to Virginia; but to a very small

amount. From North Carolina are received naval stores, lumber and some little cotton and cotton yarn; from South Carolina and Georgia, cotton and rice; and from Alabama, cotton.

Louisiana takes to a moderate extent, for her own consumption, of the manufactures of the New England states and Pennsylvania, and the manufactures and produce of foreign countries; and sends to Philadelphia large quantities of sugar and molasses, and some cotton, her own produce. Large quantities of heavy goods, destined for the western states, are forwarded by way of New Orleans; and by the same route Philadelphia receives large supplies of the produce of those states, viz.: cotton, tobacco, pork, lard, hemp, lead, &c.

The most important branch of the domestic export trade of Philadelphia is that with Ohio, Kentucky, Missouri, Tennessee, Indiana, Illinois, Mississippi, and Arkansas, especially the six first named, and consists of articles similar to those taken by Pittsburgh, the principal portion being imports from the New England states, and from foreign countries, a large part of the latter, as before stated, being received via New York and Boston.

In addition to the articles above enumerated as being forwarded by way of New Orleans, Philadelphia receives from this vast and fertile region, now rapidly filling with an enterprising and industrious population, large quantities of flour, pork, lard, tobacco, hemp, neat cattle and horses, and some beef, furs, wool, &c., via Pittsburgh and the internal improvements of the state; these, however, would be vastly greater in quantity, and the purchases of goods in return proportionally increased, if the cost of transportation from Pittsburgh to Philadelphia were still further reduced. The balance of this great branch of her trade being in favor of Philadelphia, is paid by drafts on New Orleans and New York.

With Michigan, Philadelphia has little or no trade.

Annexed is a statement of the enrolled and licensed tonnage, being that engaged in the coasting trade of Philadelphia for the years 1832 to 1841

Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.
1832,.....	31,147	1837,.....	42,592
1833,.....	30,529	1838,.....	45,080
1834,.....	32,080	1839,.....	48,293
1835,.....	34,857	1840,.....	51,676
1836,.....	40,871	1841,.....	58,425

We also append a list of the coastwise arrivals at Philadelphia for the years 1787 to 1842, much the greater portion of the large number appearing in recent years being vessels engaged in carrying coal, or barges laden with merchandise, passing between the northeastern and southwestern markets of the Union, benefiting the mercantile community of Philadelphia but little.

COASTWISE ARRIVALS AT PHILADELPHIA, FROM 1787 TO 1842, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Vessels.	Years.	Vessels.	Years.	Vessels.	Years.	Vessels.
1787,.....	390	1797,.....	929	1807,.....	1,170	1817,.....	1,238
1788,.....	490	1798,.....	1,002	1808,.....	1,951	1818,.....	1,101
1789,.....	376	1799,.....	825	1809,.....	1,683	1819,.....	1,046
1790,.....	715	1800,.....	1,051	1810,.....	1,477	1820,.....	877
1791,.....	853	1801,.....	1,125	1811,.....	1,425	1821,.....	913
1792,.....	doc's	1802,.....	1,106	1812,.....	1,549	1822,.....	1,212
1793,.....	lost.	1803,.....	1,064	1813,.....	319	1823,.....	1,018
1794,.....	1,250	1804,.....	1,292	1814,.....	583	1824,.....	981
1795,.....	1,228	1805,.....	1,235	1815,.....	1,113	1825,.....	1,195
1796,.....	1,011	1806,.....	1,213	1816,.....	1,101	1826,.....	1,195

COASTWISE ARRIVALS AT PHILADELPHIA, FROM 1787 TO 1842, INCLUSIVE—Continued.

Years.	Vessels.	Years.	Vessels.	Years.	Vessels.	Years.	Vessels.
1827,.....	1,320	1831,.....	3,262	1835,.....	3,573	1839,.....	11,188
1828,.....	1,247	1832,.....	2,849	1836,.....	3,764	1840,.....	9,706
1829,.....	2,210	1833,.....	2,573	1837,.....	7,776	1841,.....	11,738
1830,.....	3,287	1834,.....	2,686	1838,.....	10,860	1842,.....	10,457

We close this imperfect sketch of the domestic trade of Pennsylvania by giving the following statement of

THE ENROLLED AND LICENSED TONNAGE OF PENNSYLVANIA, FROM 1789 TO 1841, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.
1789,.....	4,015	1803,.....	9,855	1816,.....	24,744	1829,.....	27,494
1790,.....	5,180	1804,.....	9,995	1817,.....	24,296	1830,.....	24,236
1791,.....	3,222	1805,.....	11,000	1818,.....	25,148	1831,.....	29,225
1792,.....	3,515	1806,.....	10,297	1819,.....	23,673	1832,.....	42,206
1793,.....	4,625	1807,.....	11,440	1820,.....	24,117	1833,.....	43,223
1794,.....	6,273	1808,.....	14,671	1821,.....	25,080	1834,.....	46,653
1795,.....	7,325	1809,.....	14,922	1822,.....	23,995	1835,.....	49,860
1796,.....	7,669	1810,.....	15,803	1823,.....	27,291	1836,.....	53,514
1797,.....	8,178	1811,.....	17,164	1824,.....	27,766	1837,.....	58,237
1798,.....	8,348	1812,.....	17,502	1825,.....	29,421	1838,.....	60,161
1799,.....	7,857	1813,.....	20,247	1826,.....	31,583	1839,.....	63,790
1800,.....	8,032	1814, ...	20,407	1827,.....	34,436	1840,.....	67,045
1801,.....	7,444	1815,.....	22,360	1828,.....	37,775	1841,.....	71,588
1802,.....	8,951						

THE INTERNAL TRADE.

In the preceding article, on the course of the domestic trade of Pennsylvania, allusion has been made to the extent of business between Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, and between those two cities and a large portion of the state. This forms but a very small part of the internal trade of Pennsylvania, which embraces all the interchanges between sections adjacent, or widely separated, of every variety of merchandise, the produce of agriculture, the mine or the forest; or the manufacture of the factory or workshop. Of its amount no other than a very vague estimate can be formed; it, however, vastly exceeds both that of the domestic and of the foreign trade, although it may be said to be yet in its infancy.

No state of the Union contains the elements of wealth more diversified in character or unlimited in extent than Pennsylvania; and with a virtuous, intelligent and industrious population to develop the resources of her rich and varied soil and countless mineral treasures, she cannot fail, in time, to possess within her borders a manufacturing interest, equal, if not superior, to the agricultural. A *home* market for her agricultural produce will thus be created; while her exports will consist of manufactures sent to the western and southern states of the Union, and probably, in considerable quantities to foreign countries. This anticipated development of the internal trade of Pennsylvania must be promoted, in no small degree, by the state canals, railroads and other facilities for the transportation of produce, in the judicious management of which, those engaged in the domestic and foreign, as well as this branch of trade, have a deep interest.*

* It is our intention to devote a chapter, in a future number of the Merchants' Magazine, to the resources of Pennsylvania, embracing her mines, manufactures and internal improvements; and we embrace this opportunity of soliciting from intelligent citizens of that and any of the United States, either articles, or recent and authentic data touching their resources and trade, as we propose to exhibit through the pages of our Journal, from time to time, a general view of the commerce, resources, &c., of each state.

ART. III.—OUR COMMERCIAL INTERCOURSE WITH PORTO RICO.

THE island of Porto Rico was discovered by Columbus in 1493, and conquered by the Spaniards, under Ponce de Leon, about 1509. It was taken by the English, under the earl of Cumberland, towards the close of the seventeenth century, but they found the climate so unhealthy that they soon abandoned the conquest. It is the smallest of the Great Antilles, and is about 120 miles in length and 40 in breadth, and contains 4,500 square miles. Although inferior to none of the islands in fertility and general importance, it was long neglected by Spain, and, until the beginning of the present century, its wealth was derived entirely from its woods and pastures. But since it has shared the same liberal policy that has been extended to Cuba, and reaped the same advantages from the agitations of the mother country, and the disasters of the sister colonies, it has exhibited the same remarkable picture of commercial prosperity with the larger islands. Porto Rico is traversed by a lofty mountain ridge, which, in the eastern part, rises to the height of about 4,000 feet; on each side of this central ridge lie rich and beautiful valleys, well watered and well wooded, below which stretch the fertile plains that contain the thriving agricultural and commercial towns. In 1778, according to Murry, the population was 70,278; and in 1830, according to the official returns, it was 323,838. Of this number, only 34,240 were slaves, 127,288 were free colored persons, and 162,311 whites. The law makes no distinction between the white and the colored population, and the whites are in the habit of mixing freely with the blacks. Colonel Flinter states the produce of the island to be, in 1830, 46,414,920 pounds of sugar, 1,507,569 gallons of molasses, 1,216,500 gallons of rum, 28,000,000 pounds of coffee, 34,640 quintals of cured tobacco. According to the same authority, the live stock consisted of 70,130 head of cattle, 52,970 horses, 25,087 swine, &c. Of 58,526 tons, the tonnage arrived in 1830, 29,906 was American, and 15,163 Spanish. San Juan, the capital, is a large, neat, and well built town, on the northern coast, with a deep, safe, and capacious harbor. It is strongly fortified, and contains about 30,000 inhabitants.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:

From an official document lately published by the authorities of the island of Porto Rico, showing their general commercial operations for the year 1842, I have thought that some extracts, showing the importance and magnitude of our commercial intercourse with that island, would be interesting, and probably useful to some of your various readers. From the above mentioned documents, I find that the total importations for that year amounted to..... $5,757,403 84

Of which were imported in Spanish bottoms, ...	$3,410,577 57	
In American bottoms, ...	1,456,998 05	
In French "	151,371 12	
In English "	139,502 57	
In all other for. "	598,954 53	
		5,757,403 84
That the total exportations for the same year amounted to.....		6,429,257 35

Of which were exported in Spanish bottoms,	$1,563,109 19	
In American bottoms,	2,453,299 32	
In French "	911,138 31	
In English "	554,126 88	
In all other for. "	947,583 65	
		6,429,257 35

That the number of vessels "arriving" and "departing" are—

	Arrivals.	*Departures.*
Spanish vessels,	594	509
American "	438	399
French "	143	137
English "	88	91
All other foreign "	85	81
	1,348	1,217

That the commercial revenue is this—

Amount duties collected on imports,	$1,026,266 95
" " " exports,	313,201 25
" " " tonnage and anchorage dues,	98,882 98
	$1,438,351 18

It will readily be seen, by these statistics, how mutually important is our commercial intercourse with this island. Of their imports, nearly 25 per cent are of the agricultural products of the United States, consisting principally of flour, meal, rice, fish, beef, pork, butter, lard, cheese, candles, &c. Of their exports, 38½ per cent are annually sent to the United States, consisting principally of sugar and molasses, with some coffee. And, in regard to the number of vessels frequenting their ports, the table shows that our vessels number by far more than all other foreign vessels together.

From these facts, it may be inferred that American productions and vessels furnish the large proportion of their revenue, as Spanish productions pay but a very small duty, and we, being their largest foreign suppliers and consumers, consequently pay the largest proportion of duty. Our shipping furnish nearly the whole of their tonnage and anchorage revenue, as Spanish vessels pay no such dues, and most of the European nations trading to their ports have reciprocal treaties, by which their port charges are the same as Spanish vessels.

And now, while Congress is agitating the revision of the present tariff, is it not due to all classes of the community, that some negotiation be entered into with the Spanish government, by which our vessels and productions might be relieved from a portion of the large dues which are now exacted from them, and, in return, a reduction be made on the *excessive* duties now collected on sugar and molasses, which is out of all proportion. There is probably no portion of the world, of the same extent and population, that we are as extensively engaged with in commerce, is more important in a commercial point of view; and now, while Spain is so much agitated with intestine commotion, it is to us a matter of great moment that this island (and Cuba, with whom we are deeply commercially interested) should be preserved from its fatal influence, and con-

tinue prosperous; and it behooves our government to use all means by which this trade can be cherished, extended, and protected. R. K. K.

We add some additional statistics of the commerce of Porto Rico, compiled from the same official reports adopted by our correspondent as the basis of his remarks. The island is rapidly increasing in commercial prosperity, as is shown by the returns for 1842, as compared with those of previous years. The total imports and exports in each year, from 1838 to 1842, were as follows:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1838,.....	$4,302,149	$5,254,945	1841,.....	$6,062,362	$5,962,445
1839,.....	5,462,205	5,516,611	1842,.....	5,757,403	6,429,257

The quantities of the leading productions compare as follows:—

	1839.	1842.		1839.	1842.
Cotton,.....lbs.	1,182,933	882,064	Molasses,.....galls.	3,311,719	3,037,724
Sugar,.....	69,245,782	91,906,688	Rum,.....hhds.	649	2,097
Coffee,.....	8,536,362	12,878,953	Tobacco,.....lbs.	4,320,339	6,693,953
Hides,.....	678,640	567,042	Cattle,.....No.	8,891	3,548

The number of vessels, with the tonnage entered and cleared, of all nations, was as follows:—

	Entered.		Cleared.	
Years.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1838, ...	1,201	101,699	1,313	104,098
1839,.....	1,392	116,397	1,322	110,445
1841,.....	1,329	126,674	1,317	121,447
1842,.....	1,348	125,025	1,217	127,019

The imports and exports in the ships of different nations, were, in 1839 and 1842, as follows:—

	1839.		1842.	
National Commerce in	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
Spanish vessels,.....	$725,740	$400,401	$866,773	$981,752
Foreign "	1,951,617	414,996	2,543,814	581,349
U. S. "	1,192,670	2,588,482	1,456,998	2,453,299
English "	145,825	347,892	139,573	554,126
French "	86,382	292,054	151,371	911,138
German "	193,966	266,694	207,953	507,254
Holland "	8,615	10,965	40,996	22,484
Portuguese "	833	832	957	4,876
Swedish "	44,715	211,877	348,851	413,008
Bonded,.....	1,111,848	982,413	.....	.....
Total,.....	$5,462,206	$5,516,611	$5,757,403	$6,426,237

Number of Vessels of each Nation which arrived and cleared in 1839, with the Number and Tonnage in 1842.

	1839.		1842.			
	Arrived.	Cleared.	Arrived.		Cleared.	
	No.	No.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Spanish,.....	675	642	594	29,126	509	26,330
American,.....	439	424	438	62,860	399	67,665
Brazilian,.....	....	....	1	110	....	.....
Hanseatic,.....	16	12	22	3,832	22	3,664
Danish,.....	49	42	37	5,174	34	4,637
French,.....	88	88	143	14,436	137	12,497
Dutch,.....	9	7	19	1,033	18	1,038
English,.....	114	104	88	7,709	91	10,312
Portuguese,.....	2	3	1	100	1	100
Sardinian,.....	...	...	...	....	...	....
Total,.....	1,392	1,322	1,348	125,025	1,217	127,019

The imports and exports of the leading articles, in 1839 and 1842, were as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE ISLAND OF PORTO RICO.

Imports.

	1839.	1842.	Increase.	Decrease.
Liquors,	$290,020	$365,375	$75,355	.....
Provisions,	85,095	109,664	24,569	.....
Spices,	9,996	7,724	.....	$2,242
Fruit,	22,777	43,825	21,048	.....
Breadstuffs,	1,079,542	994,041	.....	85,501
Oils,	134,346	187,697	63,351	.....
Fish,	250,521	353,302	102,781	.....
Other articles,	95,705	121,896	26,191	.....
Total,	$1,957,865	$2,183,524	.....	.....
Manufactures—				
Cotton goods,	$844,018	$856,287	$12,268	.....
Woollen,	69,590	76,666	7,076	.....
Leather,	610,033	597,078	.....	$12,955
Hides,	119,904	159,465	39,561	.....
Silk,	93,766	127,940	34,174	.....
Total,	$1,737,313	$1,817,436	.....	.....
Lumber,	$241,516	$301,005	$59,489	.....
Metals,	814,131	491,017	.....	$323,114
Other articles,	711,389	964,405	253,016	.....
Total,	$1,767,039	$1,756,427	.....	$10,609
" manufactures,	1,737,313	1,817,436	$80,123	.....
" groceries,	1,957,865	2,183,524	225,659	.....
Grand total,	$5,462,214	$5,757,387	.....	.....

Exports.

	1839.	1842.	Increase.	Decrease.
Rum,	$16,241	$52,440	$36,199	.....
Cotton,	189,435	141,230	.....	$48,205
Sugar,	2,423,602	3,216,734	793,132	.....
Coffee,	853,836	1,274,520	420,754	.....
Hides,	.....	41,034	51,034	.....
Molasses,	496,757	455,658	.....	41,099
Cattle,	131,666	117,033	.....	14,633
Cabinet-wood,	.....	14,552	14,552	.....
Tobacco,	132,813	268,654	135,841	.....
Specie,	130,389	93,238	.....	37,151
Other produce,	113,789	35,116	.....	78,673
Foreign goods,	988,097	708,976	.....	279,103
Total,	$5,516,611	$6,429,257	.....	.....

The quantities of the leading productions of the island, compare as follows:—

	1839.	1842.	Increase.	Decrease.
Cotton, lbs.	$1,182,933	$882,064	.....	$300,869
Sugar,	69,245,783	91,906,688	$22,660,946	.....
Coffee,	8,536,362	12,878,953	4,342,491	.....
Hides,	678,640	567,042	.....	111,598
Molasses, gallons	3,311,719	3,037,724	.....	273,994
Rum, hhds.	649	2,097	1,448	.....
Tobacco, lbs.	4,320,339	6,693,953	2,373,624	.....
Cattle, No.	8,891	3,548	.....	5,343

The import and export of the precious metals was as follows:—

	1839.		1842.	
	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.
Import,	$682,301	$48,041	$374,473	$77,244
Export,	1,104	129,285	75,321	17,916
Excess of import,	$682,197	.....	$299,152	$59,328
" export,	.....	$81,244	.....	.....

COUNTRIES FROM WHICH THE IMPORTS WERE MADE INTO PORTO RICO, AND TO WHICH EXPORTS WERE MADE IN 1842.

	Imports.	Exports.	Exc. of Imp.	Exc. of Exp.
Spanish ports,	$866,773	$981,752	.....	$114,979
Cuba,	192,492	20,760	$171,732	.....
Other colonies,	2,349,904	692,595	1,657,309	.....
United States,	1,320,624	2,474,513	.....	1,153,889
Germany,	224,145	572,650	.....	348,505
Brazil,	54,967	12,514	42,453	.....
Denmark,	.....	44,323	.....	44,323
France,	32,970	794,671	.....	761,701
Holland,	.....	10,208	.....	10,208
England,	113,192	318,771	.....	205,579
Italy,	7,301	249,791	.....	242,490
Prussia,	.....	2,377	.....	2,377
Spanish America,	580,149	22,248	557,891	.....
British N. A. colonies,	14,892	232,080	.....	217,188
Total,	$5,757,403	$6,429,257	.....	$671,854

We may now take a table of the trade of each port of the island, as follows:—

TRADE OF EACH PORT OF ENTRY IN THE ISLAND OF PORTO RICO.

	1842.			1839.
	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Total.
Porto Rico,	$1,868,511	$858,034	$2,726,545	$4,149,785 13
Mayaques,	1,102,889	1,371,488	2,474,377	1,632,523 22
Ponce,	706,696	953,609	1,660,305	1,800,413 69
Guayama,	560,086	1,028,632	1,588,718	1,302,616 36
Aquadilla,	319,540	446,726	766,266	608,574 51
Cabo Rojo,	22,432	22,743	45,175	153,857 74
Fajado,	19,629	102,726	122,355	104,047 27
Other ports,	348,390	941,659	1,290,049	1,216,000 64
Total,	$4,948,175	$5,724,617	$10,672,790	$10,978,818 57

The following table gives the quantities and values of each article of production in the island, for 1842:—

EXPORTS OF PORTO RICO, 1842.

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
Rum, hhds.	2,097	$52,440	Cabinet-wood,	.....	$15,452
Cotton, lbs.	882,064	141,230	Dye-woods, lbs.	443,066	2,779
Sugar,	91,906,688	3,216,733	Salt, fanegas	5,867	5,867
Coffee,	12,745,907	1,274,590	Tobacco, leaf, lbs.	6,678,856	267,154
" triage,	133,046	6,652	" other,	.....	2,004
Hides,	567,052	51,034	Cocoa,	8,550	171
Horses, No.	178	5,585	Other articles,	.....	11,526
Mules,	45	2,025			
Cows,	3,325	117,033	Total,		$5,627,041
Molasses, galls.	3,037,725	455,658			

Art. IV.—COMMERCE OF THE BERMUDAS.

The leading article in the Merchants' Magazine for January, 1844, on the Commerce and Resources of British America, embracing all the dependencies or colonies of Great Britain, in North America, contained statements of the population, commerce, and navigation of the Bermudas, for a series of years down to 1839. From an interesting paper in the London Colonial Magazine, edited by P. L. Simmonds, Esq., before us, we are enabled to glean some additional particulars of the commerce, resources, &c., of these islands for the last two years—1842 and 1843.

The Bermudas possess great means of natural defence in the extended reefs of coral rocks that almost entirely surround them, through which a vessel must be navigated with great care by skilful pilots, and must obey a ready helm. The principal passage through these reefs is termed the North Rock channel, the extreme point of which is ten miles from the land, and by which government vessels alone are permitted to pass; and when it is navigated, its sinuous course requires to be buoyed off to aid the undertaking, and the wind must be perfectly fair. An instance once occurred, in which a frigate was taken aback in this passage, and the pilot, James Darrell, with great coolness and presence of mind, had the vessel's sail shortened, backed her through the more intricate part of the channel until he had room to wear ship, and then proceeded by the usual course, past St. Catherine's point, to sea.

There are other passages, at what is called the West end, through which merchant vessels are piloted; but these reefs extend from the southwest breaker, which is about four miles from the land in that direction, round northerly and easterly, till they terminate opposite St. David's head, the southeastern promontory of the island, on the south side. The shore is perfectly bold, a singular chain of rocks running along the coast, about pistol-shot distant, that are mostly covered at low water; inside of which the water is quite deep, and through which there are openings sufficiently wide to admit a vessel; and we have heard of one that was wrecked, passing between these rocks in the dark, and running against the main land, so that the crew landed without difficulty, and there was no loss of life.

On the south side, also, is Curtle harbor, where the king's ships formerly anchored at a short distance within its entrance, the interior abounding with numerous shoals, chiefly sandbanks, of which substance the hills in its vicinity are composed. Subsequently, the harbor of St. George, at the East end, was the rendezvous of the smaller class of vessels, there not being quite eighteen feet over the bar at its entrance; the larger ships anchoring in St. Catherine's bay, or at what is termed the North side, within the reefs before alluded to, and which form a tolerable shelter in a gale of wind, the water being never agitated at a sufficient depth materially to affect the motion of a vessel drawing more than eighteen or twenty feet of water.

The Bermudas were discovered by Juan Bermudez, a Spaniard, who was wrecked there in 1552. Sir George Somers experienced a similar misfortune, in 1709, and afterwards formed a settlement there. It was from this circumstance that they are called Somers' or Summer islands. Sir George died there, and his tomb may be seen projecting into one of the streets of St. George, near the governor's garden. The principal

islands, as far eastward as the ferry, which separates the island of that name from the main land, are cavernous, and the caves are well worth visiting. The soil of these islands is everywhere remarkably fertile, abounding with limestone.

The principal products, at present, are the common or Irish potato, the sweet potato, onions, arrow-root, and garden vegetables. The yield of the Irish potato may be stated at seven to one. It is only of late years that this vegetable has been brought under cultivation, but with so much success, as to render a very increased product of it certain. Onions (of the Madeira or Portugal kind) and sweet potatoes were for a long time the only vegetables cultivated. Although the production of the latter has, in some degree, yielded to that of the common potato, it is still in very general use; and from the adaptation of all its parts for food either for man or the lower animals, it is hoped that its cultivation will not be allowed to fall into neglect. The quantity of onions produced is increasing yearly. Being an article of considerable export, during the months of May and June, no produce pays the grower better; for, at that season, in addition to the home demand, the markets of the whole of the West Indies and some parts of North and South America are open to him. The average produce is not less than 24,000 lbs. per acre, and the average value not less than five shillings sterling per 100 lbs.

Arrow-root is beginning to be extensively cultivated. The deep red soil, and marsh or peat soil, are alone adapted for its cultivation. Nearly all that is raised, is shipped to the London market, where it is held in the highest estimation; very remunerating prices are consequently obtained. The produce of this article is capable of being greatly and beneficially extended.

In addition to these, what may be called staple products, the land is well suited to the growth of wheat, barley, and oats. The vine, too, thrives well, and yields fruit heavy and of good flavor. No vineyards, however, are yet cultivated; and no attempt with which the writer is acquainted, has yet been made to manufacture wine in the islands—an experiment which, when made, can scarcely be of doubtful success.

The orange, lemon, and other fruits of tropical climates, grow in profusion in the Bermudas.

The cedar-tree extends its growth over the islands. As a wood, it is compact, durable, and ornamental. It is used extensively in ship and house building, for both of which purposes it is well adapted. It is so close-grained, that it can be cut down, sawed, and placed in a vessel's bottom, without being seasoned. A number of ships of war were formerly built of this material; but as it is apt to splinter in action, and being found very expensive, the practice was discontinued.

The palmetto is also common. The tender leaves of this tree are manufactured into a useful and cheap description of plait for hats, while the coarser ones are used to make baskets, in which onions are exported to the West Indies.

The trade of Bermuda has been at all times considerable. No great attention having yet been paid to the produce of the soil, nearly all articles of food have been hitherto imported, and the whole of those manufactured articles so extensively used for personal and domestic purposes, ship, house building, and other objects, have been entirely so. Articles of food, such as beef, pork, lard, butter, corn, flour, pulse, rice, &c., are

principally imported from the United States of America; while dry salt fish, salmon, mackerel, &c., are brought from Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. Sugar and coffee come of late years, generally from the foreign West Indies. Manufactured articles, of almost every description, are brought from England. Under such circumstances, where so many persons have to receive their profit, it would be unreasonable to expect living to be cheap. Yet, from the competition that is constantly kept up in the supply of these various articles, no more than a fair remuneration can ever be obtained.

The trade of Bermuda, however, is far from being limited by the import of its consumption, and the export of its products. Before the British provinces grew into importance as ship-owning countries, the Bermudians eagerly availed themselves of the opportunity of interchanging for them the produce of their fisheries and articles of West India growth. Although, from the rapid increase of shipping in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Newfoundland, they no longer engross this trade, they still enjoy a considerable share, which the peculiar adaptation of the cedar vessels to it, on account of their superior swiftness and durability, will, it is hoped, enable them to maintain. They also enjoy a fair share of the carrying trade between the United States and the West Indies.

Aggregate of the value of Imports and Exports into and from the Bermudas, for the years ending respectively 5th January, 1842, and 5th January, 1843.

IMPORTS—VALUE IN STERLING.

	1842. £	s.	d.	1843. £	s.	d.
From Great Britain,	42,988	15	2	53,948	9	4
" British North America,	26,396	1	4	16,078	17	11
" British West Indies,	10,360	2	4	7,595	19	2
" United States,	53,899	16	10	77,202	11	4
" Foreign States,	18,277	19	8	8,164	9	5
Total,	£151,922	15	4	£162,990	2	7

EXPORTS—VALUE IN STERLING.

To Great Britain,	8,528	8	1	24,763	8	3
" British North America,	1,319	17	8	1,595	18	4
" British West Indies,	13,931	9	10	10,325	19	2
" United States,	2,506	9	11	4,862	18	4
" Foreign States,	4,113	8	8	966	8	0
Total,	£30,399	14	2	£42,514	12	1

Number of Vessels entered Inwards and Outwards at Her Majesty's Customs, for the same periods.

YEAR ENDING JANUARY 5, 1842.

	Inwards. No.	Tons.	Men.	Outwards. No.	Tons.	Men.
United Kingdom,	10	2,370	107	7	1,499	76
British West Indies,	19	1,419	116	43	4,010	276
British North America,	34	2,117	188	23	1,962	144
Foreign Europe.						
Foreign vessels,	2	220	13	1	100	5
United States.						
British vessels,	31	3,021	216	47	3,748	302
Foreign vessels,	33	4,494	195	14	1,690	74
Foreign West Indies, &c.						
British vessels,	29	1,884	186	14	1,324	96
Foreign vessels,	...	.....	....	7	841	37
Total,	158	15,525	1,021	156	15,174	1,010

Number of Vessels entered Inwards and Outwards at Her Majesty's Customs, for the same periods—Continued.

YEAR ENDING JANUARY 5, 1843.

	Inwards.			Outwards.		
	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.
United Kingdom,	30	8,566	372	7	1,369	68
British West Indies,	32	2,286	195	42	2,724	234
British North America,	29	1,649	136	39	6,460	321
Foreign Europe.						
Foreign vessels,	1	380	14	1	162	8
United States.						
British vessels,	24	2,425	148	46	5,463	333
Foreign vessels,	50	8,052	322	41	6,387	259
Foreign West Indies, &c.						
British vessels,	19	1,155	109	8	731	52
Foreign vessels,	1	162	8	3	436	17
Total,	186	24,675	1,304	187	23,732	1,292
Incr. for year ending Jan. 5, 1843,	28	9,150	283	31	8,558	282

Number of vessels registered in 1841, 12; and 7 launched.

Number of vessels registered in 1842, 14; and 6 launched.

Vessels, Bermuda-built, sold from the colony.—In 1482, 3, value £3,000; in 1843, 5, value £5,050.

STAPLE PRODUCTIONS.

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Arrow-root,	6,840	13	0	7,638	13	1
Palmetto-plait,	751	3	2	133	17	10
Onions,	2,426	0	0	1,491	0	0

Potatoes—1842, 731 barrels, 4 hampers; 1843, 1,223 barrels, 20 half-barrels, 103 hampers, 40 bags.

Bermuda Tariff of Duties.—For the following schedule of colonial duties, which took effect from and after the 18th of April, 1843, we are indebted to the department of state at Washington:—

Articles.	*Duties.*
	$ cts.
Wheat flour, per barrel of 196 lbs.,	50
Meal, or flour, except wheat flour, per barrel of 196 lbs.,	48
Biscuit and bread, per cwt.,	12
Corn and grain, unground, per bushel,	12
Peas and beans, per bushel,	36
Rice, per cwt.,	1 00
Cigars, per 1,000,	48
Brandy, per gallon,	36
Rum, gin, other spirits and cordials, per gallon,	2 40
Lumber, boards, and scantling, per 1,000 ft.,	96
Lard and butter, per cwt.,	72
Cheese, per cwt.,	96
Soap, per cwt.,	1 20
Candles, (tallow,) per cwt.,	4
Potatoes, per bushel,	1 44
Tobacco, per cwt.,	1 92
Tobacco, manufactured, other than cigars, per cwt.,	1 20
Raisins, currants, and figs, per cwt.,	4
Tea, per lb.,	1 12
Coffee, per cwt.,	72
Sugar, unrefined, per cwt.,	1 20
" refined, per cwt.,	

Articles.	*Duties.* $ cts.
Meat, salted or cured, per cwt.,	48
Oxen, bulls, and cows, each,	4 80
Calves, each,	1 20
Horses, mares, and geldings, each,	4 80
Colts, foals, mules, and asses, each,	2 40
Sheep and lambs, each,	48
Swine, each,	1 00
Poultry of all kinds, per dozen,	48
Wine, Madeira, Burgundy, and Champagne, per gallon,	50
" Sherry, Port, Hock, and Teneriffe, per gallon,	24
" all other kinds, per gallon,	12

Drugs and medicines 20 per cent ad valorem.

Cotton, linen, woollen, and leather manufactures; hardware, clocks, and watches, corks, oakum, cordage, and rigging, hats, almonds and nuts, fruits preserved in sugar or brandy; iron in bars or rods, wrought, unwrought, and pig; marble, rough and worked; olives, oils of olives and of almonds; ochres, pickles, sausages, tar, pitch, resin, and turpentine, 8 per cent ad valorem.

Glass and silk manufactures, spermaceti oil, blubbers, fins, and skins, the produce of creatures living in the sea, 5 per cent.

Articles not enumerated, except such as are comprised in the subjoined table of exemptions, 11 per cent on the value, at the place of exportation.

The following is a table of duties upon goods, wares, and merchandise, being of the growth, production, or manufacture of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or the channel islands, or of any of the British possessions abroad, imported into the Bermudas.

Articles.	*Duties.* $ cts.
Wheat flour, per barrel of 196 lbs.,	48
Fish, dried or salted, per cwt.,	24
" pickled, per barrel,	48
Meat, salted or cured, per cwt.,	48
Butter, cheese, and lard, per cwt.,	72
Coffee, per cwt.,	1 12
Sugar, unrefined, per cwt.,	24
" refined, per cwt.,	1 20
Tea, per lb.,	4
Lumber and scantling, per 1,000 ft.,	1 20
Potatoes, per bushel,	4
Rum of 22 degrees proof, or stronger, per gallon,	36
" of lower proof, per gallon,	30
Whiskey and other spirits, per gallon,	36

Articles not enumerated or included in the subjoined table of exemptions, 5 per cent ad valorem, on the value at the place of exportation.

Table of Exemptions.—Coin, bullion, and diamonds; tallow and raw hides; fresh meat and fresh fish; dye-wood and stuffs; mahogany, lignum vitæ, cedar, and yellow wood; shingles, wax, cocoa-nuts, cocoa, and molasses; tamarinds, hemp, flax and tow, and cotton wool; tortoise-shell; manures of all kinds; printed books and pamphlets; seeds and trees imported for planting; old copper and iron, fit only to be manufactured;

provisions and stores of every kind, imported or supplied for the use of her majesty's land and sea forces, or for the governor or officer administering the government for the time being.

Articles imported or supplied for the use of the colonial service, such as materials for the building or repairs of public buildings, roads, &c., or for the militia of the colony.

Articles enumerated, or mentioned in the table of exemptions, not liable to colonial duty.

TABLE OF DUTIES ON EXPORTS.

Articles.	*Duties.* $ cts.
Salt, per bushel,.....	00¼
Pine-apples, per dozen,.....	4
Oranges, (China oranges,) per thousand,.....	48
Forbidden fruit and grape fruit, per thousand,.....	1 92
Shaddocks, per hundred,.....	2 04
Limes, or lemons, per thousand,.....	16

Art. V.—MARITIME LAW.

NUMBER IV.

BOTTOMRY BONDS.

Maritime loans, by bottomry and marine hypothecations, will next claim our attention. These fall peculiarly within the cognizance and jurisdiction of courts of admiralty, which usually proceed by actions *in rem* against the property itself, to obtain satisfaction by condemnation and sale, of the claims which form a lien upon the marine subject hypothecated. The doctrine of maritime loans, naturally divides itself under three heads:—

1st. Bottomry bonds.

2d. Respondentia loans.

3d. Marine hypothecations.

We shall treat this subject under these divisions, and in the order as they are here placed.

A bottomry bond is a marine contract or hypothecation, whereby a certain sum of money is advanced, by way of loan, on the security of the *keel*, hull, *spars*, tackle, apparel, and furniture of a ship, with the provision, that in case the ship perish or be lost during the voyage or time stipulated, by the perils of the sea, the party advancing the money shall have no right of recovering against the borrower, or any right to recover, further than against the proceeds of such parts of the ship as may have been saved.

And in the event of the safe arrival of the vessel, or her safety during the time stipulated, or her loss by the acts of the borrower or his agents, or those of the master or crew, the lender is entitled to the repayment of the sum advanced, with a certain rate of interest, called the marine interest or premium for the risk of losing the money advanced which the lender takes exclusively on himself. The rate of interest is usually a high one, and is not held to be usurious when the money has been put at

risk for any period of time however short, because this marine interest is not received as a mere recompense for the loan or advance of money, but as a compensation for the risk, which the lender runs, of losing both principal and interest by the loss of the vessel.

This contract of maritime loan, is made more on the credit of the property hypothecated than upon the credit of a personal nature.

Indeed, in case of bottomry loans, the person of the borrower will not be liable to refund the money loaned, unless made so by the terms of the agreement,—the lender lends to the ship. He acts on the credit of the thing itself, which becomes his debtor. Mr. Justice Story, in delivering the opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States, says, it has been correctly remarked by Lord Stowell, that the form of bottomry bonds is different in different countries, and so is their authority. In some countries, they bind the owners; in others, not; and where they do not, even though the terms of the bond should affect to bind the owners, that part would be insignificant, but it would not at all touch upon the efficiency of those parts which have an acknowledged operation. In England and America, the established doctrine is, that the owners are not personally bound except to the extent of the fund pledged, which has come into their hands. To this extent, indeed, they may correctly be said to be bound: for they cannot subtract the fund, and refuse to apply it to discharge the debt; but in that case, the proceedings against them is rather in the character of possessors of the thing pledged, than strictly as owners.* By the law of England and the United States, no judicial or notarial act is necessary to constitute a valid bottomry contract or marine hypothecation, which is usually created under the private signature of the parties, with one or more subscribing witnesses, or by the attorneys or agents of the parties lawfully appointed in writing for this purpose; and, in regard to the form of a contract of bottomry, we will observe, that it assumes different shapes in all countries. Sometimes it appears as an instrument, in the form of a bond; at others, in the form of a bill of sale; and, again, in the form of a deed poll. In countries governed by the civil law, it is often seen in the form of a declaration or stipulation, drawn up by a public notary, under his official hand and seal, who writes and states the agreement, and certifies to it officially as his act and deed and that of the parties who appear before him and acknowledge it. But whatever be the form, the occasion of borrowing, the sum due or loaned, the premium, the ship, the voyage, the risks to be borne by the lender, and the obligation of the ship itself, as security for the payment, all virtually are, and properly ought to be, expressed.

This contract must always be in writing, as the common law and mercantile usage of modern times do not recognize a parol hypothecation as valid,† though by the civil law it was otherwise.

Thus, where a master drew bills of exchange on his owner for money advanced, with a verbal agreement by him, that, in case the bills were not paid, the ship should be liable, the court of bankruptcy, in England, refused to consider this a valid hypothecation of the vessel. In many of the European countries, a judicial act of hypothecation must be made, or the act must be done before a notary public and witnesses. By the ordinances of Bilboa, in Spain, the contract is required to be made before

* 8 Peters, U. S. Reps., 554. The Virgin.

† 2 Rose Reps. 194 and 229, ex parte Halkett.

a public notary, and if he is absent, then before the collector or governor of the port, with the stipulations, causes, and circumstances, which may convene or adjust the parties.*

In the most ancient history of the East Indies, and of the Chinese, Persians, Arabians, and Ethiopians, we find mention made of a traffic by sea. The Carthaginians were a colony from ancient Tyre, and, for a long time, held the supremacy of navigation in the Mediterranean and western seas. Indeed, the ancient traditions and histories of that remarkable people, show us that they extended their discoveries into the Atlantic ocean and penetrated to America. They had a law which made it death for any person to reveal to other nations the extent of their discoveries. Next to the Phœnicians and Egyptians, the ancient Grecians, and above all, the Rhodians, were among the first people who carried on commerce on the Mediterranean, and who reduced the rules to govern merchants to a systematic code. The Romans, before the destruction of Carthage, were not accustomed to maritime commercial adventures to any considerable degree, and when they became a commercial people, they mostly derived their navigation laws from the Greeks, who had received theirs from the Rhodians. These latter people had transferred into their code the laws of the Phœnicians and the Egyptians, who were immediately connected with the commerce of the Indian ocean and China sea.

The contract of bottomry appears to have arisen in the earliest periods of commercial transactions. The principle of lending money upon the risk of the undertaking has been known from the earliest periods of history, and has been a contract substantially the same in all ages and countries, merely differing in its forms and applications which local regulations have given it. In ancient times the lending of money was made upon commercial adventures that were to be carried on through barbarous countries, and the return of the money borrowed, with the stipulated premium, was made to depend upon the safe arrival of both or either the person and goods of the borrower at the place of destination.

Hienecius speaks of cases where money was lent upon the risk of a commercial enterprize upon land subject to be lost by failure of the enterprize through sickness, storms, robberies, and the enemy.

The whole subject of bottomry contracts has been handed down to the maritime laws of Europe by tradition, navigation, and commercial intercourse, and thence transplanted into America.

At Athens, in Greece, in the days of Demosthenes, the orator, the subject of maritime loans was well digested in their commercial code and usages, and the law on this subject assumed both the form of a bottomry contract as well as that of a respondentia loan of the present day. Several speeches of Demosthenes relate to the loans of money on bottomry and respondentia.

At Athens, the Nautodakai were magistrates who had cognizance of controversies between merchants, mariners, and others engaged in commercial adventures. A court was held once a month, and when causes required greater despatch a court was opened oftener for this purpose. Likewise, the doctrine of bottomry bonds was familiar in the Roman law, in later times, under the title of *Fœnus Nauticum*, which terms signify that

* Ordinances of Bilbao, chap. 23, § 1.

money is taken upon the pledge, or hypothecation of the keel, or bottom of the ship. The term used by the ancient Britons and Celtic nations to express the keel or bottom of the ship was *Bodo* or *Bodum;* hence, by a derivation from this language, the Dutch called it Bomerie, Bodmerie, Boddemerie—and in modern English, Bottomry; and hence, these contracts are usually called bottomry contracts or loans.

But money lent to sea on the cargo of a ship was called by the Roman lawyers *Pecuniæ Trajectitia*, which properly represented a case of money being transported by sea in a ship, at the risk of the lender, to be employed in merchandise for the advantage of the borrower. This latter contract is rendered into English by the terms of loaning money upon *Respondentia*. Mr. Duer, in his lectures, which are full of learning and historical research on marine insurance, says—"The practice of lending money on bottomry at very high rates of interest, seems to have prevailed at Rome from an early period. It is said by Plutarch, that Cato the elder, in his old age, when avarice had become his dominant passion, adopted this mode of increasing his revenue. The first limitation of the rate of interest on maritime loans, which, in the language of Gibbon, the wiser ancients had not attempted to define, was made by Justinian; it was fixed at 12 per cent in his code.* But the hypothecation of a ship under the pretended name of bottomry, in which a lender is to run no risk or loss by sea, is considered a mere loan or a wagering and gaming agreement, and as such, entitled to none of the privileges of this species of contract,† nor can the lender take any other security to pay the money loaned independent of the safe arrival of the vessel at her port of destination, or the happy termination of the adventure, for he would then run no certain risk upon the loan of his money. If he should take such security, a contract then would become one of a simple mortgage upon the ship for the security of re-payment of the money, and then would fall within the principle of a loan subject to the municipal regulations of the country where made in respect to usurious transactions;‡ so when money has been loaned upon a ship, or goods, all writings or contracts or goods given for the loan of money, are held extinguished by the entire loss of the things hypothecated, and the borrower then remains freed from the obligation contracted, without the lender having any recourse against his person or goods. So when a shipwreck or destruction of either the vessel or goods happen in whole or part, and any portion of either, which are hypothecated are saved, those who have lent money upon bottomry on a part of the value, will inherit and receive in proportion with other parties interested in the property saved, according to the sums or values they may have respectively in the property and its proceeds, first deducting costs and charges.§ Bottomry obligations are held in great sanctity by the maritime courts of this country and England, under something like a particular necessity. They are usually given for the payment of repairs and other necessary expenses incurred in foreign ports, where the owner and captain have no personal credit. And in most countries governed by the civil law, repairs and necessaries form a lien upon the ship herself.‖

More often than otherwise, bottomry bonds are executed to extricate

* See Mr. Duer's Lectures on Marine Insurance, p. 39, 40; notes 9 and 10.
† See Vanderlinden, page 612. ‡ 1 Haggard, p. 49. The Atlas.
§ Ordinances of Bilbao, chap. 23; sec. 15 and 9.
‖ Haggard's Admiralty Reports, p. 325. The Zodiac.

the vessel from an original lien held upon it. Commerce is the sole object of this contract. The maritime interest, which is the price of the risk, is considered to some purposes as a part of the profits of the voyage. This contract is not a sale or mortgage, nor is it a simple loan, or a partnership, or an insurance; but it is a specific contract known to the law, and has a character and quality peculiar to itself. It is different from all other contracts, and forms one of a particular kind.

The premium in the civil law is called "*periculum pretium*," and no person, by this law, as well as the common law, can be entitled to it, who does not take upon himself the perils of the voyage. These are the same as in a policy of insurance, and consist of all losses by the act of God, public enemies, strandings, shipwrecks, storms, fire, robberies, detention of princes, captures, piracies, navigation of rivers, ports; in short, everything, except the acts of the borrower, or those in his employment. But should a vessel be seized for smuggling, or a breach of the revenue laws, or for want of sufficient papers, such as bills of health, clearances, consular certificates, invoices, "*rolle de Equipage*," or be lost by defect of cables, anchors, or any other unseaworthiness of the vessel itself, or by barratry, or by a deviation, or any other cause which could be chargeable to the negligence or fault of either the borrower or those in his employment—in such cases the lender would recover his money, though the subject matter of the hypothecation should be lost.

But when the lender has loaned his money, it still remains in the power of the borrower to defeat his receiving a maritime interest, inasmuch as the borrower is not compelled to put to sea, even when he has covenanted to do so. A right of action, in such case, may accrue to the lender, and he may claim damage for the violation of the agreement; but he will not be entitled to maritime interest, whatever the agreement may be, unless the perils of the sea have actually commenced. He, however, will be entitled to this interest if the risk has once begun to run, however short the time. But the rule is peremptory, that if nothing has been exposed to the waves of the sea, there has been no contract of bottomry in law; so if the ship perishes by any of the perils assumed by the lender, he can claim nothing of the borrower. No rule of law has been established in England and the United States as to the amount of money that a lender may loan upon a given value of either ship or cargo, or both. But when an amount of money has been borrowed on a ship or on a cargo much beyond the value, with an agreement to pay a high rate of interest, this will afford a strong ground to suspect fraud, and that the voyage will have an unfortunate end.

Casaregis, a writer in the civil law, says, that when a captain for a voyage shall receive a much greater sum of money than there is a risk upon the ship existent, there should be a presumption of a sinister design. In regard to the subject-matter of hypothecations for bottomry loans, we will observe that the general rule of maritime law is, that whatever is capable of insurance, may be the subject of bottomry and respondentia and of marine hypothecation. Thus the ship, her tackle, apparel and furniture, provisions, freight, cargo, goods, earnings of the ship, but not the wages of the seamen, may all, under certain circumstances, be included in the instrument of hypothecation, or separate instruments may be given upon one or more of all these objects. So this contract may be made between parties on land, while the vessel is at sea. By the ordinances of Bilbao

in Spain, it is unlawful to borrow money on bottomry, on risks of the sea upon freight or seamen's wages; but with regard to seamen's wages, they can be hypothecated with the consent of the master in the *cod* and *whale* fisheries.

There is no positive regulation in America or England on either of these subjects, except it is generally understood to be the law, that as seamen's wages cannot be insured, therefore they cannot be put at a risk upon bottomry or respondentia agreements. Freights may be covered by a bottomry contract, although such freights are the profits of the voyage, and partake strongly of the nature of a gaming agreement. Policies of insurance cover freights by express stipulation, and the decisions incline to the doctrine that freights may be included in the agreement for a bottomry loan.

Loans on a *voyage* to the East Indies are prohibited by the English statutes; but with regard to all other commercial adventures, this rule of law has not been brought within any statutory regulation. The loan of money is prohibited by the commercial code of France upon freights to be earned. Indeed, every loan not founded upon a real risk, is at bottom only a wager, and there can be no difference between freights to be earned by the ship, and wages to be earned by the seamen. They do not constitute a real risk at the time of making the contract.

In regard to the time when the risk commences and terminates, it is usually stipulated in the agreement, and the contract controls the rights of the parties. In absence of such an agreement, the time of the risk will begin with the vessel breaking ground to sail on the voyage, and continue until the vessel shall have arrived at the port of destination, and there safely moored.

The Spanish ordinances of Bilbao provide that the risk shall continue until twenty-four hours after her arrival at moorings in her place of destination, and when a bottomry obligation covers goods or merchandise, the risk as to them will commence when notice is given to load them in lighters, or other smaller vessels which belong to the ship, and continue until the merchandise is delivered ashore in the port of destination.

By the Roman law, this contract could be made not only upon a loan of money, but also upon anything which could be appointed and sold by number, measure, or weight, and which could be compensated in kind, or by money at an usury or interest.

Any indebtedness which can be liquidated, may, by the law at the present day, be made a subject of a bottomry transaction.

Thus, a ship chandler's bill, or an indebtedness of the vessel for her building, repairing, or a supply of provisions and outfits in a foreign or home port, may be put in the form of a bottomry bond by the owners, or by the master, in a foreign port, when necessary for the purposes of the voyage, and made to run at a maritime interest, provided that the payment is made to depend upon the successful termination of the voyage or adventure.

When the time of the risk is limited, the risk and the marine interest will end with the time, though the voyage be not ended; and the risk of the lender will cease should the ship be prevented by accident from performing her voyage within the limited time.* By the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, it is not necessary that a respondentia

* 4 Viner Title Bottomry Bonds.

or a bottomry bond should be made before the departure of the ship on the voyage, nor that the money should be employed in the outfit of the vessel, or invested in the goods in which the risk is run. It matters not at what time the loan is made, nor upon what goods the risk is taken. If the risk of the voyage be substantially and really taken; if the transaction be not a device to cover usury, gaming, or fraud. If the advance be in good faith, for a maritime premium, it is no objection to it that it was made after the voyage was commenced, nor that the money was appropriated to purposes wholly unconnected with the voyage. The lender is not presumed to lend upon the faith of any particular appropriation of the money; if it were otherwise, his security could be avoided by any misapplication of the fund, where the risk was *bona fide* run upon other goods.* Bottomry bonds are usually preferred to every other claim or privilege for the voyage on which it is founded, except the claim for seamen's wages. These bonds give the same privilege to the holder, when executed for a lawful purpose and by one having authority to do so, as a debt secured by a pawn on moveable property being put into possession of the creditor, to secure payment of a debt.

When the debt is necessarily contracted for the preservation of the ship, the bottomry claim will take preference over a previous mortgage; and as a general rule, the last bottomry bond takes precedence of an older one, but debts afterwards contracted for the preservation of the property, such as salvage and the like, will rank before bottomry bonds. Whenever a holder of a bottomry bond has paid off a claim for seamen's wages, he will be permitted to have the same priority and lien on the proceeds of the ship which they would have; so when the owner has paid off a salvage claim, he will be preferred to the holder of the bottomry bond for the amount without a cession of action, and it is said that where the consignee of goods being in possession of the bill of lading, and having paid the charges of transportation of the goods to the carrier, he will hold the goods to the extent of his lien, preferent to the holder of a bottomry bond; so bottomry upon particular goods on board is preferred to a general bottomry, all other things being equal.

The court of admiralty possesses jurisdiction of bottomry and respondentia contracts, and marine hypothecation made for the purpose of raising funds to defray the expense of a voyage, or for raising money to run at a risk of the sea, and when a foreign lender of money takes a mortgage upon a vessel as collateral security for advances, without taking any risk. The court of admiralty, in England, entertained jurisdiction to enforce payment of the advances upon the property hypothecated.

But it appears that the contract of hypothecation must be connected with some marine adventure or with a maritime trade or navigation, otherwise the court of admiralty will not have jurisdiction. Thus, when a vessel was mortgaged by a part owner to raise funds not to meet the necessities of an impending voyage, nor to run at the risks of the sea, the court of admiralty, in the third circuit of the United States, refused to entertain jurisdiction in *rem*, to enforce payment of the hypothecation.†

But a court of admiralty acts and decrees according to right and justice, like courts of pure equity jurisdiction, and a bottomry bond may be held good for a part, and bad for a part. So far as the claim properly falls

* 1 Peter's U. S. Reports, 437. † 3 Washington C. C. Reports, 293.

within the class which gives a lien upon the vessel and cargo by the maritime law, so far will it be held to be within the cognizance of the court, and dismissed as to the rest; indeed, the court of admiralty as well as courts of common law, frequently have occasion to decree that bottomry claims are a valid lien upon the property or person of the borrower to a certain extent, and void as to the remainder. This court, like a court of equity, will marshal the assets of property condemned within its jurisdiction, so as to distribute the proceeds according to the equities of the several claimants.

Thus, the owners of the vessel will be held liable to exhaust their share of the funds in court, to pay a bottomry bond executed by the master abroad upon the ship and cargo, for the repairs of the ship, before the property of the shippers of the cargo can be called upon to contribute any share of the payment of the loan.*

The most usual way to enforce the payment of bottomry contracts is by a proceeding in *rem*, in the court of admiralty, against the ship itself, by attachment, condemnation and sale, and when the sale has taken place, or the vessel has been released upon stipulations for value, the court will then proceed to make distribution of the proceeds among the different claimants, as justice may require; and this may be done whether the owners, or persons interested do or do not appear at the time appointed by the court on its monition and citation, otherwise their absence or default would occasion a failure of justice.

A sale of a vessel under a decree of a court of admiralty which has once acquired jurisdiction of the cause rightfully, will convey a good and valid title to the purchaser, as against all the world, even should the owners or their agent decline the jurisdiction of the tribunal; and it becomes all those interested, to cause their appearance to be entered, so that they may contest the claims made against the vessel, as well as to secure a just and legal distribution of the effects of the sale.†

The codes of different nations give us different rules in regard to the liability of the lenders on bottomry to a contribution for a gross or general average. By the Spanish law, lenders on bottomry are subject to a gross or general average for all jettisons, ransoms, compositions of ships, masts and riggings, cut away for the common good of the ship and cargo, and they shall pay *pro rata*, according to their value of interests in the property hypothecated, but not to a single average, unless the contrary is stipulated.‡

The doctrine has been held, in England, that a lender was not subject to average or salvage, but the most eminent jurists in America have come to a different conclusion. Chancellor Kent has combatted the English doctrine with great force and eloquence, and he very justly asks the question, why the lender should not contribute towards a jettison, a ransom, or composition made for the general safety, when, if no such sacrifice had been made, he would have lost his entire loan by the rapacity of pirates, or the violence of the storms.§

The supreme court, in Louisiana, have held this to be the doctrine in their courts, although several decisions, in America, have followed the English rule. The Louisiana rule was, that a contribution or average

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* 3 Mason's Reports, 255. The Packet.
† 2 Wendell's Reports, 64.
‡ Ordinances of Bilbao, chap. 23, sec. 9.
§ 3 Kent's Com., 360.

should be first made, and the bottomry bond be discharged from the remainder.* The master ought not to pledge or hypothecate the cargo for repairs and necessaries which affect the vessel, unless the case of absolute necessity presents itself, for the proprietors of the cargo bear a loss, in such a case, which they ought not to do. The ship-owner is a common carrier, and is bound to provide ways and means to transport the cargo to the place of destination, and when the owners of a cargo contribute to, or pay for a bottomry or respondentia bond, they will have an action upon the bond against the vessel and owners to refund the money and damages.

The courts of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, possess plenary equity powers to adjust the rights of all parties over which they have jurisdiction, and the doctrine of averages and priorities of liens will be adjudicated in this court, on all occasions which require the equitable interposition of the court.

A court of admiralty will moderate the rate of maritime interest, when, under all the circumstances, it appears to be exorbitant and unjustifiable, though, in doing so, it will act with great caution and delicacy.† The court, in a proper case, will refer the case to mercantile persons, and the registrar of the court, to report upon the question whether the interest is unreasonably high; but in the language of Chancellor Kent, the contracts of bottomry and respondentia are maritime loans of a very high and privileged nature, and they are always upheld by the *admiralty* with a strong hand, when entered into *bona fide*, and without any suspicion of fraud.‡ A court, in a distant part of the globe, can form only an imperfect opinion of the measure of the distress existing, and of the difficulty of obtaining the needful supplies at the place where they are furnished. The money is to be advanced to persons unknown, and resident in a foreign country; it is to be advanced upon an adventure which may totally fail of success, and the money may be irrecoverably lost.§ So a bottomry claim may be sustained, as to some of the items of it, and rejected, as to others. Nor do deductions or disallowances of a portion of a bond, impeach its validity for the remainder; but when various claims are mixed up in a bottomry bond, it is incumbent on the holder to separate them, and show distinctly to the court the nature and origin of each, before he can claim a decree for any of them. The persons who can execute a bottomry bond are the owners of the vessel, when in a home port, or at sea, or on a voyage, and the master, in certain cases, and under certain circumstances; but when the master gives the bond, without authority first had of the owners, the rule of law, in all cases, is that the holder or obligee is bound to show that the money was *bona fide* advanced, by other evidence, extrinsic than what the bond purports on its face; and where money is advanced to the master of a vessel, in absence of the owner, and without his consent and authority, first had and obtained, the holder can recover no more, or larger portion of the bond, either for principal or interest, than he proves was necessary to effect the objects of the voyage, or the safety of the ship; nor will a lender be permitted to advance money to the master, for his private purposes, not connected with the vessel; nor can the master hypothecate the ship in a foreign port, or in a

* 6 Martin's N. S. Reps., 399. Chandler *vs.* Garner.
† 3 Mason's Reps., 256. The Packet. ‡ 3 Kent's Com., 353.
§ 1 Huggard's Adm. Reps., 327.

home port, to pay obligations of the owners which do not form a lien upon the vessel. Most vessels are navigated by persons who do not own them, or by those who have a small share only of the ownership. The master, in such a case, is but an agent with certain powers with which the law and necessities of trade clothe him, and when he exceeds those powers, his acts, in contemplation of law, become mere nullities. The proprietors and owners of vessels delegate the command and conduct of the voyage of the ship to him. The master is the confidential servant or agent of the owners, and they will be bound to all the lawful contracts made by him, relative to the usual employment of the ship, and the repairs, and other necessaries furnished for her use; but the authority is limited; and if the master transcends the prescribed limits, his acts are not binding on the owners or the vessel.

By the Prussian law, the master is bound to note a bottomry bond upon the original ship papers in his possession, and if he has hypothecated the cargo, he must also note the fact upon the bills of lading, and immediately acquaint the owners and consignees of the cargo with his acts. There is no such regulation in America or England; but, in the latter country, in order to raise money by way of mortgage upon a vessel, the contract must be endorsed on the ship's register, or a subsequent purchaser will take precedence as to title over the prior mortgagee.

We know of no rule in America which prohibits the builder of a ship or vessel from taking a valid bottomry bond upon a vessel, for the wages of building her, to be held at a risk of a future voyage; but, in several European countries, such an instrument is regarded as a mortgage, and not as a valid bottomry agreement. Indeed, the instrument, and the time, and the occasion, all point to its character; and courts of justice would protect a subsequent purchaser, who had *bona fide* paid the purchase money without notice, unless the instrument of hypothecation had been duly recorded or otherwise legally treated. But by the law of Holland, these latter hypothecations must be passed judicially, or acknowledged before a notary with witnesses.*

As a general rule, the power of the master of a vessel to take up money upon bottomry and respondentia, exists only after the voyage has commenced, and is to be exercised only in a foreign port, where the owner does not reside; for in such cases, only, is the hypothecation presumed to be necessary;† and it is said that the whole of England is deemed a home port, as to the master and lender on bottomry; but occasions may arise in which the different ports in the same country may be so separated, or cut off by warlike operations from all communications with each other, as if they were situated in distant parts of the globe. The law does not look upon the mere locality of the transaction, but to the difficulty of the communication between the master and his owners. In a home port, or in a place where the owners reside, when the master can communicate with them, he cannot legally hypothecate, by the maritime law of England, any other than his own interest in the vessel or cargo, by a bottomry or respondentia obligation. In America, the several states, in a commercial sense, are, to a great degree, deemed foreign places to each other; and vessels owned in one state of the United States, when in

* 1 Wheaton, U. S. Reps., 966. The Aurora.

† See Vanderlinden's Laws of Holland, p. 610.

another state, are held to be foreign vessels in regard to marine hypothecation.

Thus, when a vessel belonged to the port of Richmond, in the state of Virginia, and was sailed by a master and crew to the port of New York, and while there was hypothecated by the master, by a bottomry bond, for money lent for repairs to the ship, necessary to enable her to pursue the voyage, Chief Justice Marshall, in the Circuit court, held the bond to be valid, and a lien on the vessel, though made by the master without the authority or knowledge of the owner.*

By the laws of most countries, the lender is permitted to insure the amount loaned on bottomry. This is called a re-assurance; and the insurer must be governed in these cases by the usual customs of such contracts in the countries where they are made.

But, by the ordinances of Amsterdam, the insured, on being paid a loss, must make over the insured claim to the taker on bottomry, and deliver up to him the writings.

By the ordinances of Hamburg, the lender may make his insurance for principal, interest, and premium; but, by the Spanish law, no person may get insured the sum that he shall take up as a borrower on bottomry, on pain of nullity.

But the person or persons that shall lend money may insure it for the bare sum which they shall have advanced, without including the premium that they are to receive for it, under the like penalty of nullity in case of violation.

The ordinances of Konigsburgh permit the creditor, or lender of bottomry money, to insure his capital lent, together with the premium paid to the insurer; but not the stipulated premiums, or other profits of the bottomry.

But insurance made by the debtor, or borrower on bottomry, shall be of no effect when made on the ship or goods hypothecated.

So is the law in America; and the borrower on bottomry or respondentia many times has no insurable interest in the property pledged, as the sum borrowed often equals the value of the property under hypothecation. In any event, he is interested only so far as the value of the property exceeds the amount for which it is pledged.

Thus, where the owner of a ship had bottomried her for more than the full value of the vessel, it was held that he had no insurable interest. When property is hypothecated to its full value, the borrower is not interested in its safety; for, if the property is saved, it goes to satisfy the debt; but if lost by the risks within the hypothecation, the borrower is discharged from the debt.

The parties may, however, stipulate that the lender shall run only the risks stipulated in the agreement, however limited; and then the other risks usually included and specified in a policy of insurance will be the subject of insurance on the part of the borrower.†

The lender upon bottomry has an insurable interest in the ship hypothecated; but this will depend upon the validity of the hypothecation. If the hypothecation is legal, the insurance will be legal; but if the hypothecation is void, or tainted with a violation of law, the insurance will be also void.

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* 1 Brockenborough's Reps., 396. Selden *vs.* Hendrickson.

† See Parke on Insurance, p. 48.

By the law of England and the United States, a lender on bottomry or respondentia cannot insure the ship or goods effectually, unless his particular interest is described and mentioned in the policy. The person who loans money has no certain interest either in the vessel or cargo.

When a person has insured a bottomry or respondentia interest, and recovers his bond against the borrower upon a loss, he cannot also recover upon the policy, because he has not sustained a loss within the meaning of his contract; and to suffer any man to receive a double satisfaction, would be contrary to the principles of insurance law. It is merely a contract of indemnity; and a man shall not receive less, nor can he receive more, than the amount of damage he has sustained.*

Mr. Benecke, in his learned work on marine insurance, says that the lender on bottomry or respondentia ought to insure only the amount of the bond, without the insurance premium; for, did he include it, the loss of the ship would be more profitable to him than her safe arrival. Money expended during the voyage for repairs of the ship and outfits, may be insured, with the premium and charges for effecting the policy and charges of recovery; for these constitute a part of the charges of repair, which, after the ship's safe arrival, are to be borne by the party concerned; and, in case of her total loss, to be paid by the underwriter.†

By the laws of Holland, at the present day, money lent on bottomry, of either ships or goods, may be the object of insurance, provided it be clearly expressed in the policy of insurance; in which case, not only all this money so lent on bottomry, but even the goods purchased therewith, and put on board the vessel, are at the risk of the owners or underwriters. But an insurance effected by the borrower on goods already charged with bottomry to their full value, is void. Such an insurance only covers the excess of value of the goods over the money lent on bottomry on them.‡

By the law of Spain, whenever a shipwreck happens to a vessel or merchandise insured, the lender of money at bottomry, on a risk at sea, shall be preferred to the underwriter for his payment of the principal sum, but without including the premium, by reason of his special subjection and hypothecation.§

But a borrower upon bottomry or respondentia will not, by the Spanish code, be permitted to insure either his ship or goods, upon pain of nullity. This was the law of most European nations in former times; though, by the modern codes, the interest of the borrower, over and above the amount of the hypothecation on bottomry, in the ship and goods, constitutes a valid insurable interest.

The Commercial Code of France, book xi., title 9, contains a complete digest of the law on the subject of contracts of bottomry and respondentia, in the brief compass of twenty-one articles. Most of the regulations of this title are the law of maritime nations at the present day, with the exception, in the French code, that bottomry and respondentia bonds, when made payable to order, may be negotiated and transferred, by means of endorsement. In case of transfer, the instrument has the same effect, and produces the same rights of action against sureties as other commercial paper; but this endorsement will not extend to the payment of the maritime interest, unless such guaranty be expressly stipulated.

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* 1 Phillips, p. 113. † Benecke, p. 32. ‡ Vanderlinden, p. 647.
§ Ordinances of Bilbao, chap. xxiii., sec. 14.

By the common law of England and the United States, such an instrument does not partake of the qualities of mercantile paper, negotiable by endorsements, with liabilities of it attached, without a special agreement; but, even by the common law, the bond may be made payable to order, assigns, or bearer; but the term generally used is assigns. This gives a right of action when the instrument is assigned to the holder, who must prosecute it in the name of the assignor, to the use and benefit of the assignee; but when a condition is attached to it, the paper does not fall into the class of commercial negotiation by endorsement alone. In France, by virtue of the code, commercial contracts of bottomry and respondentia may be made by the parties under their private signatures, or before a notary. Both these contracts are included under the general term of "*contrats à la grosse*;" and they must specify—

1st. The principal lent, and the rate of maritime interest agreed upon.
2d. The subject on which the loan is effected.
3d. The names of the vessel and the master.
4th. The names of the lender and the borrower.
5th. Whether the loan be for the entire voyage.
6th. For what voyage, and for what space of time.
7th. The period of repayment.

By this code, it is required that every lender on bottomry and respondentia shall cause his contract to be registered in the clerk's office of the tribunal of commerce, within ten days from its date, under the penalty of forfeiting his lien or privilege; and when the contract is made in a foreign country, it is necessary that the consul of France, or some other magistrate in his absence, at the port or place, shall authorize the transaction, as well as authorize the amount of the sum which the necessities of the vessel may require.

These loans may be effected—

1st. On the body and keel of the ship.
2d. On the rigging and apparel.
3d. On the outfits and provisions.
4th. On the cargo.
5th. On the whole of the subjects conjointly, or some determined part of each or either of them. Loans made for a sum exceeding the value of the subject matter hypothecated, may be declared void, on demand of the lender, when fraud is proved against the borrower; but when there is no fraud, the contract is valid to the extent of the value of the thing under hypothecation. Loans on freight to be earned, and on the expected profits of the goods, are prohibited; but freights already earned are subject to a lien by privilege, for the principal and interest of money lent on bottomry, on the body and keel of the vessel; and so is the vessel itself, and her rigging and apparel, her outfits and provisions.

So is the cargo bound for loans upon it, both for principal and interest; though, by the law of England, the person of the borrower alone is liable when the cargo is sold in a foreign country. So, when a particular thing is hypothecated, the lien takes effect only on that article.

The master may hypothecate his share only in the vessel and freight when the vessel is in the place of the residence of the owners, or in a home port, unless they give the master special authority to do so. (This is the law of England and America.) Part owners may be cited by other part owners to appear, and appropriate the necessary funds to fit out their

share of the ship; and, in case they refuse to do so, a sum lent on their shares, even in the place of their residence, for repairs and provisions, will form a lien, after twenty-four hours' delay of repayment. (The laws of England and the United States have no such regulations in their maritime codes, though such a provision in regard to obdurate part owners would be beneficial in most cases.)

Loans made for the last voyage upon the vessel are to be repaid in preference to the sums lent for a preceding voyage; so a sum lent during the voyage will have a preference to those lent before the departure of the vessel, and generally the last loan will take precedence of the prior one. (This is the rule in America and England, when the last loan was necessary to accomplish the purposes of the voyage.) When goods have been shipped on board of another vessel not named in the contract, the lender will not be called upon to sustain a loss, even when occasioned by the perils of the sea, unless it be legally proved that this shipment was the effect of superior force. When the subject upon which the loan was made be lost entirely, within the time and place designated, and by accident or unforeseen casualties, the lender cannot demand the sum loaned; but when a loss or damage, or diminution of the thing hypothecated, is caused by the act of the borrower, this will not be at the charge of the lender.

Deviation, and the acts of the borrower, his agents or servants, will charge the borrower with the payment of the loan and interest, should a loss happen, after a deviation actually made; but, by the law of England and the United States, a mere intentional deviation will not have this effect should the loss happen before the arrival of the vessel at the point of departure for the deviation. In case of shipwreck, the lender takes whatever is saved, or its value, of both vessel and cargo, subject to salvage expenses; and, in absence of any stipulation, the risk in the ship, rigging, tackle, apparel, and provisions, commence from the day and hour of her sailing until the day of her anchoring or mooring in the port or place of her destination. The risk for goods runs from the day they are laden on board, or when taken into lighters for this purpose, until the day they are landed. In case of borrowing upon goods, the party borrowing must prove that there were on board, at the time of the loss, for his account, effects to the amount of the sum borrowed, or he will not be discharged by a loss of the ship and cargo. Lenders on bottomry and at respondentia contribute to a general average, in discharge of the borrower; and so is the law with respect to particular average, if there be no agreement to the contrary.

In case of insurance upon the goods and vessel, the proceeds saved from shipwreck are to be divided between the lender on bottomry, for his principal sum loaned solely, and the insurer, for the amount rateably, according to their respective interests, subject to the liens established by law. The provisions of the civil code of France, on the subject of bottomry and respondentia, recommend themselves to the favor of all commercial nations by their wisdom and justice of sentiment, and by their comprehension and eloquence of language.

Neither England nor the United States have ever thought proper to frame a system of commercial and maritime laws, though they are two of the most extensive maritime powers on the face of the globe. The maritime law of England and the United States does not exist in any definite and distinct form.

It must be sought in the voluminous statute-books both of the national, state, and colonial governments; and still more in the countless elementary treatises and adjudged cases which encumber the library, and distract the mind of the judge and the lawyer.

The maritime law forms no part of the common law, and has derived its principles from the usages, customs, and laws of the sea of all maritime nations. It has drawn largely upon the compilations of the French nation, from the days of the promulgation of the laws of Oleron, in 1150, to the present time. The United States must ever remain essentially a maritime nation, and possess an extensive trade upon the ocean, as well as an internal commerce, unequalled by any nation, on the great rivers and lakes. The national government have authority to regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the states; and no subject seems to demand a share of their attention more than a code of maritime and commercial law. A. N.

Art. VI.—STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

It has long been a subject of surprise and regret, that whilst almost every matter upon which legislation can act, has received a certain share of attention, the statistics of the country, the only safe basis of legislative action, so far as relates to the great commercial and financial interests of the community, have been entirely overlooked. Individuals, it is true, have thought and written upon the subject. The bulky volume of Mr. Seybert, the smaller, but better arranged book of Mr. Pitkins, the statistical tables of Watterston and Van Zandt, "the National Calendar," published by P. Force, the "American Almanac," published in Boston, the "United States Almanac," published in Philadelphia, the "Pennsylvania Register" of Mr. Hazzard, "Niles's Register," published at Baltimore, and "last, but not least," the "Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review," contain a fund of most valuable statistical information; but it is scattered, and rendered of comparatively little value to the public, for want of collocation and juxtaposition. The general government, as such, has literally done nothing towards collecting, arranging and preserving a regular and methodized account of the statistics of the country; and this neglect has not arisen from *ignorance* of the necessity, or the importance of the subject, for it has frequently been pressed upon the notice of Congress; it would not, perhaps, be quite decorous to say that it has arisen from *indifference;* but let the cause for this neglect have been what it may, the omission has led to much unwise, much unnecessary, and much conflicting legislation, and a much greater waste of public money than would have supported a department consisting of a principal and ten clerks, employed at high salaries, and devoting their whole time and attention to our national statistics.

The subject has, however, at last obtained some notice from Congress. Much credit is due to the Hon. Zadoc Pratt, for introducing into the House of Representatives, on the 29th of January, 1844, the following resolution:—

"Resolved, That a select committee of five members be appointed to enquire into the expediency of establishing, in connection with the trea-

sury department, a Bureau of Statistics of Commerce." Mr. Pratt's observations on introducing the resolution well describe the objects and the utility of this bureau. He said "that the purpose he had in view was the establishment of a bureau, in connection with the Treasury Department, whose duty should be, to take charge of the statistics of the country; that is, gather all the information of that character, as connected with the agriculture, commerce, and manufactures of the country, and the banks and monetary institutions, and to reduce the same to convenient tabular form, so systematized and simplified as to be of easy reference. The statistics thus embodied would be invaluable, not only to facilitate, but to secure enlightened and correct legislation. It was not only important that the representatives of the people should have a condensed view of the result of labor in this country, of every kind, in an official and authentic form, but that the *people themselves should have it;* for, while it would assist the former in legislating correctly, it might direct the latter in the application of their labor. The plan he proposed, was not one to *increase expense*, but to *economize expenditure;* whilst it was intended to lessen the enormous expenditure of extra clerk-hire, now consequent upon the frequent calls by Congress on the department for information, which will be furnished by such a bureau, it is intended to have the information in such form as could be relied upon. But this bureau would not only save much money now spent in the hire of extra clerks, it would also greatly economize the *time* of the legislative branch of the government, which will be also money saved. The sessions of Congress are protracted, in some measure, in consequence of the delay in procuring information from the departments, upon which to base legislation. This evil will be corrected by the adoption of the resolution, for the bureau of statistics will be prepared, at a moment's notice, to lay before Congress all the information of a statistical nature which might be desirable."

This resolution was agreed to; and the speaker appointed the following committee:—Mr. Pratt, of New York, Mr. Black, of South Carolina, Mr. Summers, of Virginia, Mr. Cobb, of Georgia, and Mr. C. M. Reed, of Pennsylvania. These gentlemen have not yet made their report; but we anxiously hope that they will decide it to be not only *expedient*, but absolutely *necessary*, that the bureau in question should be established.

Arguments in favor of it are as "plentiful as blackberries," and it is not easy to imagine that aught can be said against it. It is a highly important national measure; it is of very ready and easy practicability, and would save many thousand dollars a year in the expenses of the government.

That a knowledge of the statistics of a country is important to the community residing in it, is evident from the fact, that in scarcely any civilized country, excepting our own, have the means of acquiring that knowledge been neglected. England has her "Board of Trade," France her "Bureau du Commerce," and nearly all the nations of continental Europe have similar institutions, under various names, forms and regulations, but all devoting their attention to the same object, the gathering together and garnering up statistical knowledge. What is valuable to those countries, must be important to us: nay, a more intimate knowledge of these subjects, and a more general dissemination of it among our people, appear to be rendered more necessary to us than to others, seeing that our institutions regard the people as the source of all power, and that, consequently, that power, to be exercised wisely, must be based upon knowledge.

Correct and extensive statistical information is no less necessary for the mass of the people, in order that they may desire, appreciate, and understand just legislation, than it is for the legislator, to enable him to comprehend and promote the best interests of his constituents. Those members of Congress who have been most anxious to legislate *wisely*, have felt most the want of such a bureau as the one under consideration. They have sought for information from the executive departments, which, in many cases, the departments themselves did not possess; and where information has been attainable, it has been procured after long delay, and often after the opportunity of using it profitably has passed away.

A statistical bureau would record the history of the past; furnish most important information for our guidance in the present, and the best means of judging correctly as to the future. It would make the nation acquainted with the relative advantages of every variety of agricultural produce, every department of commercial adventure, and every employment of manufacturing skill. The various sources of revenue, and objects of expenditure, would be brought before the public in a compact and convenient shape, and *information* furnished, instead of the *raw materials* for information only, as is generally the case in the bulky documents now issuing from the executive and legislative departments, at the annual expense of tens of thousands of dollars, but with very little real benefit to the nation.

A statistical bureau would furnish correct information relative to all the great interests of the nation; it would facilitate legislation, and render it more uniform and consistent; and it would forward and assist the business of the executive departments. It would be a storehouse of knowledge upon every point connected with the commerce, the finance, the navigation, the shipping, the manufactures, and the agriculture of the country. In its archives would be chronicled every important fact relating to the army, navy, post-office, patent-office, public lands, Indian department, mint, banks, exchanges, prices of stocks, internal improvement, produce, expenditure, education, population, crimes, prisons, hospitals, diseases, mortality, &c. &c. In fact, its objects and its duties would be to furnish ready answers to every question which would be legitimately asked, in respect to everything of a national character, to which facts and figures bear any relation. The international trade between the various states, &c. of the Union, would also be attended to, and their statistical details chronicled and arranged. The statistics of foreign countries would be comprehended in its arrangements, and everything relating to their tariffs, their commercial regulations, their finances, &c. &c., would be duly recorded.

If knowledge of this description were spread before the people, all the conflicting theories of political economists and one-sided politicians would soon give way to the sober truths of figures, and the unerring demonstration of facts. So much for the *importance* of this bureau. The *practicability* of its establishment needs no other evidence than that similar institutions have been formed, and have been long in useful operation, in nearly every nation of Europe. What has been done there, can surely also be accomplished by our country. We cannot be deficient in either the proper persons, or the necessary skill, for carrying such a bureau into operation. The writer of this ventures to assert, that a plan, against which nothing but its *simplicity*, and therefore *apparent inadequacy*, can be urged, may be adopted, which would enable the bureau to answer

every question relative to any of the subjects under its charge almost *on inspection*, and with the same ease as a merchant's or broker's clerk ascertains the state of a customer's account, by turning to the proper page in the ledger.

As to the expense of establishing this bureau, it would be altogether trifling in proportion to the important services it would render. Three or four competent clerks, who should be fitted for the employment by habit, by inclination, and temperament, would set the matter a going, and perhaps be found quite sufficient to carry out the details. The greatest labor would be at first; this would, however, gradually give way to industry and perseverance. The annual expense need not be more than $5,000 or $6,000; and *more* than this might be *saved* in the *item of printing alone;* for it may be proved that more than $3,000 can be saved in the printing of one document, and much more information given to the public for two-thirds of the present cost. Add to this the saving in the extra clerk-hire, the abridgment of labor in the departments, and the saving of time in the legislature, and the conclusion is inevitable, that the establishment of the bureau would be a measure of *economy in time, in labor*, and in *money*.

What more need be urged in favor of this measure, than that it is highly important and necessary, very easy in execution, and tending to economy? The establishment of such a bureau would be the most important and valuable measure of the session. I look, with anxiety, to the report of the committee, and regard it as of great national interest.

Great care should be taken in the selection of a head or principal of this bureau. He should be a man accustomed by habit, and predisposed by taste, to the dry details of figures, and the uninviting marshalling and arranging of arithmetical deductions; his mind should be like a correctly-posted ledger, with a place for everything, and everything in its place. Above all, he should be a man of unwavering industry, unceasing zeal, energy, and perseverance.

I know that you are friendly to this measure; and rejoice in the powerful aid which your valuable journal contributes to the cause of sound commercial and statistical knowledge. P. T.

Art. VII.—COMMERCIAL RECIPROCITY.

"All patriotism," says Mr. Webster, "is false and spurious, which does not look with equal eye to the interests of the whole country, and all its parts, present and to come." But, unfortunately for the character of our free republic, we seem to have no settled understanding of what are the true interests of the whole country. Sectional or party views have such a predominating influence, that *national* rights, *national* responsibility, and *national* commerce, are not regarded with that high and patriotic consideration which is their due. An ultra and proselyting spirit overlooks the good of the whole; and anything like a free, impartial, or philosophical discussion of subjects in which the whole Union is concerned, is treated with indifference, unless it can be warped into the service of some local or political schemers. Even the abstruse science of political economy has, we fear, been studied more with a view of misleading than

enlightening the public mind; and the mystified policy of foreign diplomatists, with theory on one side, and an opposite practice on the other, is eagerly espoused by those who aspire to high places, but have no just sense of what is due to a lofty and independent American character.

The subject of COMMERCIAL RECIPROCITY, or a fair and legitimate exchange of values among ourselves and with foreign nations, requires to be better understood. The whole country has a deep interest in it; and yet, how crude and unsettled are the notions of what fair reciprocity consists in! Some deny its expediency altogether, and assert that trade will regulate itself without laws. Others rely on commercial treaties, in which they hope to get the best side of a bargain, but in which, however, they are liable to be overreached. But how few are there, who, with any settled principles of political science, or any true regard for our national rights, one and all, present and to come, study out and uphold a national policy, which, whilst it offers to all nations a fair exchange of equivalents, will never suffer our own rights or essential advantages to be disparaged by any foreign power. The vast interests of the United States, which are constantly acquiring shape and growth by new developments of our own resources, and changes going on in our relations with other powers, require a standing committee of members from all sections of the country to have a supervision of all our foreign and commercial relations, which, at present, have no particular department of the government to look after them, and, in fact, are not understood, and cannot be, without special and constant attention. What is accomplished in England by her board of trade, we need in this country, and then we shall possess an energy and defence far more important to our national glory and advancement, than any that can be derived from our navy or army, however necessary or respectable these may be.

The great measure of a protective tariff has been happily secured by coincidences which were most fortunate for the people, and which they seem now to be resolved to reap the advantage of, in spite of party intrigue, and the bitter denunciations of those who call it "*a system of plunder and monopoly*;" but the commercial interests of the country still continue to suffer from the effects of foreign impositions, and what may plainly be called fraudulent circumventions of treaties, made with a view to commercial reciprocity. Our shipping and carrying trade cannot make progress against the advantages proffered and secured to other nations by our miscalled reciprocal treaties. Still no measures are taken in Congress to countervail these encroachments.

It is our design, in this article, to draw public attention to this subject, and to show, that if there is any "*plunder and monopoly*" practised, it is by those who make the charge, and the foreign government which favors their peculiar interests.

In order to show the striking want of reciprocity which exists in the trade between England and our country, the result of commercial treaty regulations, we must avail ourselves of an interesting report recently made by a committee of the American Institute of this city, and which has been widely circulated by them. Many partial and sophisticated statements having been put forth of late by the advocates for a pretended free trade, both in this country and England, professing to prove that our tariff of duties on British goods is higher than that which the British government imposes on goods from the United States, a careful investigation

was made by the committee, consisting of General Tallmadge, General Chandler, and Mr. Williams, showing the result, in detail, of the old British duties, also those now in operation, with the preferential advantages secured to the colonial trade, and a condensed statement of the imposts levied on the leading exports from this country, with their prices current, in the New York market, at the commencement of this year.

The following tables are derived from this report:—

TABLE A.

Exhibit of the Comparative Rates of Duty levied by the old and new British Tariffs, on Articles the growth and produce of the United States.

Articles of Export.	N. York market price.	Old Duty.		New Duty.		Duty on imp. from British col.	Rate per cent.
		Rate on quantity.	Rate per cent.	Rate on quantity.	Rate per cent.		
	$ cts.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£ s. d.	
Apples,.....per bush.	50	4	192	6	24	2	8
" dried,.....	1 00	2	48	2	48		
Ashes, pot,....per 112 lbs.	4 62	6	31	6	2½	free.	
" pearl,.....	5 12	6	28	6	2½	free.	
Bacon,.....	6 72	1 8	100	14	50	3 6	12½
Beef,.....per bbl.	5 75	1 4	100	16	67	4	16½
Beans,.....per bush.	1 00	10	20	10	20	5	10
Bark, quercit'n,..pr. 112 lbs.	1 25	8	12½	3	5	1	2
Butter,.....	13 44	1	36	1	36	5	9
Candles, sperm,.....per lb.	33	2 6	180	6	36		
" tallow, pr. 112 lbs.	12 32	3 3 4	123	10	19		
Candlewick,.....	10 08	4 8 8	212½	8 8	20	4 4	10
Casks, empty,.....per ct.			50		25		
Cheese,.....per 112 lbs.	5 60	10 6	45	10 6	45	2 6	10
Cider,.....per bbl.	1 00	1 15	840	1 15	840		
Clocks,.....per ct.			25		20		
Corn, Indian,* (average,) per bush.,.....	54	1 6	67	9	33½	1½	5½
Cotton,.....per 112 lbs.	8 96	2 11	7½	2 11	7½	4	1
Feathers,.....	33 60	2 4	31	1	14	10	7
Fish, cured, (prohibited under the old tariff.)							
Fish, cod,.....per 112 lbs.	3 00			2	16	free.	
Flour,* (average,).per bbl.	4 75	17	85	6 7½	33½	1 10	9
Hams,.....(see bacon.)							
Hops,.....per 112 lbs.	7 84	8 11	523	4 10	275		
Lard,.....	6 72	8	28	2	7	6	1½
Lead,.....per ton	78 40	2	12½	1	6	5	1½
Molasses,.....per 112 lbs.	2 24	1 3 9	255	1 3 9	255		
Oil, linseed,.....per tun	189 00	39 18	100	6	15	1	2½
" fish,.....	100 00	26 12	127	6	29	1	¼
" sperm,.....	200 00	26 12	64	15	36	1	¼
Pork,.....per 112 lbs.	5 60	12	51	8	34	2	8½
Rice, cleaned,.....	3 00	15	120	6	48	6	4
Rosin,.....	45	4 9	253	2	107	1	53½
Snuff,.....per lb.	08	6	1,800	6	1,800		
Soap, bar,.....per cwt.	6 72	4 10	321	1 10	107.	1	71½
Spirits, from grain,.per gall.	23	1 2 6	2,347	1 2 6	2,347	9	939
" from molasses,.....	27	1 2 6	2,000	1 2 6	2,000	9	800

* Subject to the sliding scale. The sliding scale, in the British corn laws, makes the duty on grain and flour variable, according to the prices of their domestic grain, and is nearly prohibitory to grain and flour from the United States. The duty is always low enough to admit the same from the British colonies.

TABLE A.—Continued.

Exhibit of the Comparative Rates of Duty levied by the old and new British Tariffs, on Articles the growth and produce of the United States—Continued.

Articles of Export.	N. York market price.	Old Duty.		New Duty.		Duty on imports from British col.	Rate per ct.
		Rate on quantity.	Rate per cent.	Rate on quantity.	Rate per cent.		
	$ cts.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.		£ s. d.	
Starch,.....per 112 lbs.	5 60	9 10	814	10	42½	5	21¼
Sugar, brown,.....	6 72	3 3	225	3 3	225	1 4	85¼
" loaf,.....	12 32	8 8	327	8 8	327		
Staves, hogshead,..per 120	4 50	3	320	7 9	41	7	3½
Tallow,.....per 112 lbs.	7 84	3 2	9	3 2	9	3	¼
Tar,.....per bbl.	1 50	1 3	20	2½	3	½	½
Tobacco, leaf,.....per lb.	03½	3	2,056	3	2,056		
" manufac'd,.....	09	9	2,400	9	2,400		
Turpentine,.....per bbl.	2 62	13	119	3	27½		
Twine, Kentucky, per 112 lbs.....	22 40	1 11	33	1 11	33		
Vinegar,.....per bbl.	6 00	3 3	252	3 3	252		
Wheat,* (av.,) ....pr. bush.	1 00	3 4	80	1 4	32	3	6
Wool,.....per lb.	25	1	8	1	8	free.	
Number of articles,.....		47)	16,898	48)	13,886		
Av. rate of duty under the old tariff,...			359	New do.,	289		

TABLE B.

Total Export of Articles, the growth or produce of the United States, to England, Scotland, and Ireland, with the Duties paid thereon, during the years 1838, 1839, *and* 1840.

Years.	Value.	Duties.	Per cent.
1838,.....	$50,481,624	$23,621,160	46 7-10
1839,.....	50,791,981	26,849,477	52 8-10
1840,.....	54,005,790	28,360,153	52 5-10
Total,.....	$155,279,395	$78,830,790	av. 50 5-10

Of the above, the value of cotton and tobacco, and the duties paid thereon, were as follows:—

Years.		Value.	Duties.	Per cent.
1838	Cotton,.....	$45,789,687	$2,761,612	.....
	Tobacco,.....	2,939,706	19,860,898	.....
1839	Cotton,.....	46,074,579	1,942,337	.....
	Tobacco,.....	3,523,225	23,288,396	.....
1840	Cotton,.....	41,945,334	3,247,880	.....
	Tobacco,.....	3,380,809	22,537,205	.....
Total,.....		$143,653,340	$73,638,328	51¼
Total exports,.....		$155,279,395	$78,830,790	.....
Deduct cott'n and tobacco,		143,653,340	73,638,328	.....
Total,.....		$11,626,055	$5,192,462	44 6-10

* Subject to the sliding scale. The sliding scale, in the British corn laws, makes the duty on grain and flour variable, according to the prices of their domestic grain, and is nearly prohibitory to grain and flour from the United States. The duty is always low enough to admit the same from the British colonies.

TABLE C.

Statement of the Rate of Duties payable on the principal Articles imported into the United States, from Great Britain and Ireland, according to the present Tariff, passed August, 1842.

		Per cent.
Woollens,	(average,)	40
Worsteds,		30
Cottons,	(average,)	50
Linens,		25
Hemp, manufactures of,		20
Silk, manufactures of,	(average,)	40
Cotton bagging,	"	34½
Flannels,	"	33
Baizes,	"	40
Carpeting,	"	40
Lace, thread,	"	15
" cotton,	"	20
" bobbinet,	"	40
Paper,	"	75
Books,	"	25
Engravings,		20
Twine,	(average,)	33
Leather, manufactures of,		35
Earthenware,		30
Glass,	(average,)	40
Hardware,		30
Iron,	(average,)	40
Saddlery,		30
Steel,		16½
Tin,		1
Brass, manufactures of,		30
Copper,	"	30
Plated ware,		30
Gilt	"	25
Gold and silver jewelry,		20
" watches,		7½
" lace,		15
Ale and porter,	(average,)	50
Drugs,		20
Salt,	(average,)	50
Coal,	"	60
36 articles,		1,140½
Average, (nearly,)		32

N. B.—On those articles which pay specific duties, the rate per cent is calculated on the average cost of the same articles in Great Britain.

The table A will strikingly exhibit the kind of policy adopted by the British government, to wit: high imposts on manufactured articles, interfering with her own laborers; low imposts on raw materials, which are needed to keep their own workmen and machinery employed; still lower, on such articles as they do not produce or manufacture, unless they are of a character like tobacco or spirits, on which an enormous revenue can be raised, from a vicious indulgence in these luxuries, to discharge the otherwise insupportable expenses of its debt-burdened government.

The rates of duty in England, on the chief productions of our country, as presented in table A, average, according to the old British tariff, on their value in this market, 359 per cent. By the new one, now in operation, 289 per cent. On thirty-three of these articles, being all which are admitted under a discriminating duty in favor of the colonies, the average duty, when imported *direct from the United States, is* 166 per cent. On the same articles, imported into Great Britain *from the British colonies*, the duty is 64 per cent, making a discriminating duty, in favor of the latter, of 102 per cent.

The average of duties on the principal articles now imported into the United States from Great Britain, as shown in table C, is 32 per cent. On the total amount of our exports to Great Britain, for three years, the average duties thereon is shown to be, per table B, 50½ per cent. Omitting cotton, which, being essential to her manufacturing industry, is admitted at 7½ per cent duty, and constitutes $\frac{1}{5}$ths of all she takes from us, the average duty on the remaining articles is 330 per cent. Omitting cotton and tobacco, our two great American staples, which are the pillars of her revenue and commercial sway, varying in duty from 7½ to 2,400 per cent, (which, if duties are *plunder*, as is asserted by the champions of a free trade policy, shows who are plundered most of those who depend on

the labor of their peculiar population at the south,) the average duties on the remaining articles are $44\frac{8}{9}$ per cent.

Thus is it proved, in every view of the case, that there is a great want of reciprocal advantage in our intercourse with England, who, nevertheless, has the benefit of one-third of our whole export trade to all nations, and annually levies more duties on our cotton and tobacco, than the whole annual expense of our own government, or the whole duties we collect from customs from all our imports.

The very able report referred to by the writer of this article, shows the precise mode in which a foreign government has, wisely for her own interests, taken advantage of our ignorance and absurd free trade propensities. It is time that we should refuse to be any longer blindfolded and cajoled for the benefit of any other people; and it is time, especially, that our own free, working, industrious citizens of the northern and western sections of the country, who are not favored with a monopoly of servile labor, and do not enjoy a climate suited to the aggrandizement of a foreign power, should resist the lion's part which is played by those to whom cotton is everything and personal labor is odious. It is time that our hardy grain-growing yeomanry, and intelligent laboring men and women, engaged in manufacturing and commercial pursuits, in the free states, *as well as the cultivators of sugar, molasses, and tobacco, whose products are enormously taxed in Europe*, should resist the undignified and unjust aspersion thrown upon them, of being "plunderers and monopolists," whilst those who make the charge, *the cotton planters*, are more favored than any others by the existing state of our trade, both at home and abroad. Protection is due to all our interests, and it is invidious in any portion of the community to be dissatisfied with its share. Let the popular vote fairly decide what this share is. The tariff is a legally enacted measure of the government and people, and those who are pursuing an honest vocation under its sanction are entitled to respect. With a perfectly free trade at home, guarantied by our own laws, let our labor, our own capital, and all our integral rights of sovereignty be protected from foreign aggression, and then the United States will deserve and enjoy a national character.

C. C. H.

Art. VIII.—PROPOSED MODIFICATION OF THE TARIFF.

The following is a synopsis of the bill reported on the 8th of March, 1844, to the United States House of Representatives, by the committee on ways and means. General M'Kay, chairman of the committee, laid before the house, next day, the committee's report, which, with the bill, was ordered to be printed; and both were referred to the committee of the whole on the state of the Union:—

Sec. I.—Enacts that, from and after the 1st of September, 1844, the duties imposed by the act of 30th August, 1842, shall be changed, modified, and reduced, in manner following:—

1st. On all coarse unmanufactured wool, the value whereof, at the last port or place whence exported to the United States, shall be 7 cents, or under, per lb., the duty shall be 15 per cent ad valorem, instead of *5 per cent, as per act of '42. On all other unman-

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* Reduced to a scale, ad valorem, by the treasury department, they range from 40 to 87 per cent.

ufactured wool, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 3 cents per lb., and 30 per cent ad valorem.

2d. On all manufactures of wool, or of which wool shall be a component part, except milled or fulled cloth, known as plains, kerseys, Kendall cottons, carpetings, flannels, bockings, baizes, blankets, worsted, stuff goods, ready-made clothing, hosiery, mitts, gloves, caps, and bindings, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 40 per cent, as per act of '42.

3d. On all milled or fulled cloth, known as plain, kerseys, or Kendall cottons, of which wool shall be the only material, the value whereof shall not exceed 35 cents the square yard at the last port or place whence exported, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of the duties imposed per act of '42.*

4th. On all carpets and carpeting, of wool, hemp, flax, or cotton, or parts of either, or other material not specified, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of duties imposed per act of '42.*

5th. On all woollen blankets, the actual value of which, at the place whence exported, shall not exceed 75 cents each, there shall be levied a duty of 10 per cent ad valorem, instead of 15 per cent, as per act of '42.

6th. On all hearth rugs, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 40 per cent, as per act of '42.

7th. On woollen yarn, 25 per cent ad valorem, instead of 30 per cent, as per act of '42. On worsted yarn, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of 30 per cent, as per act of '42.

8th. On woollen and worsted mits, gloves, caps, and bindings, and woollen or worsted hosiery made on frames, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of 30 per cent, as per act of '42.

9th. On flannels, of whatever materials except cotton, and on bockings and baizes, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 14 cents per square yard, as per act of '42. On coach laces, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 35 per cent, as per act of '42.

10th. On ready-made clothing, of whatever materials, worn by men, women, or children, (except gloves and hosiery, and similar manufactures made on frames,) hats, bonnets, shoes, boots, and bootees, imported in a state ready to be used as clothing, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 50 per cent, as per act of '42. On all articles worn by men, women, or children, other than as above specified, made up wholly or in part by hand, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 40 per cent. On clothing finished in whole or in part, embroidered in gold or silver, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 50 per cent, as per act of '42.

Sec. II.—1st. On all manufactures of cotton, or of which cotton shall be a component part, not otherwise specified, and excepting cotton-twist, yarn, and thread, and such other articles as herein otherwise provided for, 25 per cent ad valorem—proviso of second section of act of '42 repealed.†

2d. On cotton-twist, yarn, and thread, bleached or unbleached, colored or uncolored, and on spools or otherwise, 25 per cent ad valorem, instead of various duties, as per act of '42.†

Sec. III.—1st. On all manufactures of silk not otherwise specified, except bolting-cloths, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of $2 per lb., as per act of '42.‡ On silk bolting-cloths, 15 per cent ad valorem, instead of 20 per cent, as per act of '42.

2d. On silk twist, or twist composed of silk and mohair, and on sewing silk, $1 per lb., instead of $2 per lb., as per act of '42. On pongees, and plain white silks, for printing or coloring, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of $1 50 per lb. On floss, and other similar silks purified from the gum, dyed and prepared for manufacture, 15 per cent ad valorem, instead of 25 per cent. On all raw silks, comprehending all silks in the gum, whether in hanks, reeled, or otherwise, 12½ per cent ad valorem, instead of 50 cents per lb. On silk umbrellas, parasols, sun-shades, silk or satin shoes for men, women, or children, silk or satin laced boots or bootees for do., men's silk hats, silk or satin bonnets for women, silk shirts and drawers, made up wholly or in part; silk caps for women, turbans, ornaments for head-dresses, aprons, collars, caps, cuffs, braids, curls or frisettes, chemisettes, mantillas, pelerines, and all other articles of silk made up by hand, in whole or in part, and not otherwise provided for, 25 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed by act of '42.§

3d. On unmanufactured hemp, Manilla, Lunn, and other hemps of India, jute, Sisal grass, coir, and other vegetable substances not enumerated, used for cordage, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed by act of '42.‖ On codilla, or tow of

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* Reduced to a scale ad valorem, by the treasury department, they range from 40 to 87 per cent.

† Reduced to ad valorem by treasury department, ranging from 49 to 63 per cent, some being 150; such as handkerchiefs. ‡ 40 to 65 per cent.

§ Per Treas. Doc., ad valorem, ranging from 50 to 75 per cent.

‖ Per same, 40 per cent.

hemp and flax, 25 per cent, ad valorem, instead of $20 per ton. On tarred and untarred cables, and cordage and cables, yarns, twine, pack-thread, cotton-bagging, of whatever material composed, and on any other manufacture not otherwise specified, suitable to the uses to which cotton-bagging is applied, whether imported under the designation of gunny cloth, or other appellation, 30 per cent, ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed by act of '42.*

4th. On stamped, printed, or painted floor oil cloth, furniture oil cloth, made on Canton or cotton flannel, other furniture oilcloth, oilcloth of linen, silk, or other materials, used for hat-covers, aprons, coach-curtains, or similar purposes, and on medicated oilcloths, 30 per cent, ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed by act of '42.†

SEC. IV.—1st. On iron, in bars or bolts, not manufactured, in whole or in part, by rolling, $15 per ton, instead of $17 per ton, as per act of '42. On bar or bolt iron, made wholly or in part by rolling, $20 per ton, instead of $25 per ton. On all iron imported in bars, for railroads or inclined planes, made to patterns, and fitted to be laid down as rails, upon such roads or planes, without further manufacture, $10 per ton, instead of $25 per ton: *Provided* security be given that, if not permanently so laid down within the prescribed time arranged by the secretary of the treasury, in one year, the full duty of $20 per ton, shall be paid.

2d. On iron in pigs, $7 per ton instead of $9 per ton, as per act of '42. On vessels of cast iron, not otherwise specified; glazed or tin hollow ware and castings, sad irons or smoothing-irons, hatters and tailors' pressing-irons, cast iron butts or hinges; iron or steel wire, described in said act as not exceeding No. 14, over that and not exceeding No. 25, and over No. 25, silver or plated wire; round or square iron or braziers' rods, of 3-16ths to 10-16ths of an inch in diameter, inclusive; iron in nail or spike rods or nail plates; slit, rolled, and hammered iron, in sheets, except —— iron, hoop iron, iron slit, rolled or hammered for band iron, scroll iron or casement rods; iron cables or chains, or parts thereof, manufactured in whole or in part, of whatever diameter, the links being of the form peculiar to chains for cables; all other chains of iron not otherwise specified, the links being either twisted or straight, and when straight, of greater length than those used for cables; anchors or parts of anchors, manufactured in whole or in part; anvils, blacksmiths' hammers and sledges; cut or wrought iron spikes; cut iron nails; wrought iron nails; axletrees or parts thereof; mill irons and mill cranks of wrought iron; wrought iron for ships, locomotives, and steam engines; iron chains, other than chain cables; steam, gas, or water tubes, or pipes made of band or rolled iron; and tacks, brads, or sprigs, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed by act of '42; and the last clause of the 2d proviso of the 2d subdivision of the 4th section of the said act, which imposes a duty of 15 per cent ad valorem, upon the cost of the articles embraced therein, repealed.‡

3d. On all old or scrap iron, $6 per ton instead of $10 per ton, as per act of '42.

4th. On screws made of iron, called wood screws, brass screws, and brass battery or hammered kettles, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties of act of '42.‡

5th. On all steel in bars, except cast, shear, and German steel, $1 50 per cwt. instead of $2 50 per cwt., as per act of '42. On solid headed pins, and all other package pins, and on pound pins, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of duties as per act of '42.

6th. On japanned ware of all kinds, or papier mache, and plated and gilt wares of all kinds, cutlery of all kinds, and all other manufactures not otherwise specified, made of brass, iron, steel, copper, pewter, lead, or tin, or of which either of these metals is a component material, 25 per cent ad valorem, instead of 30 per cent, as per act of '42.

7th. On lead in pigs and bars, old and scrap lead, leaden pipes, leaden shot, and lead in sheets, or in any other form not herein specified, 25 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties of act of '42.

8th. On silver plated metal in sheets, argentine, alabata, or German silver, in sheets or otherwise unmanufactured, and on manufactures of German silver, bell metal, zinc, or bronze, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of 30 per cent, as per act of '42.

9th. On coal, $1 per ton instead of $1 75 per ton, as per act of '42. On coke or culm of coal, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 5 cents per bushel, as per act of '42.

SEC. V.—1st. On all vessels or wares, articles and manufactures of cut glass, cut glass chandeliers, candlesticks, lustres, lenses, lamps, prisms, and parts of the same; and all drops, icicles, spangles, and ornaments used for mountings; and on all articles or manufactures of plain, moulded, or pressed glass, whether stappened, or the bottoms ground,

* Per Treasury Document ad valorem, 71 to 188 per cent. † 67 per cent.

‡ Reduced to ad valorem, ranging from 45 to 235 per cent.

or punticed, or not, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed by act of '42.*

2d. On all apothecaries' vials and bottles, not exceeding the capacity of 16 ozs. each, and all perfumery, and fancy vials, and bottles, not exceeding the capacity of 16 ozs. each, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.*

3d. On all black and green glass bottles, and jars, and on all demijohns and carboys, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.*

4th. On all cylinder or broad window glass, and on all crown window glass, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.* On all polished plate glass, whether imported as window glass, or however otherwise specified, not silvered, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.* And if silvered, 25 per cent ad valorem, and if silvered and framed, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42, 2d proviso to 4th subdivision of 5th section, repealed.* And on all porcelain, glass, glass colored, or paintings on glass, and on all articles or manufactures of glass, or of which glass shall be the component material of chief value, and not otherwise specified, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.*

5th. On Chinaware, porcelainware, earthenware, stoneware, and all other wares, composed of earth or mineral substances, and not otherwise specified, whether gilt, printed, plain, or glazed, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of 30 per cent, as per act of '42.

6th. On tanned, sole, or bend leather, all upper leather not otherwise specified, calf and seal skins tanned and dressed, sheep skins tanned and dressed, or skivers, goat skins, or morocco tanned or dressed, kid skins, or morocco tanned or dressed, goat or sheep skins tanned and not dressed, and all kid and lamb skins tanned and not dressed, skins tanned and dressed, otherwise than in color, to wit: fawn, kid, and lamb, usually known as chamois, 25 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.† On men's boots or bootees of leather, wholly or partially manufactured; on men's shoes or pumps, wholly or partially manufactured; women's boots or bootees, wholly or partially manufactured; children's boots, bootees, or shoes, wholly or partially manufactured; women's double soled pumps or welts, shoes or slippers, wholly or partially manufactured, whether of leather, prunella, or other material, except silk, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.‡

7th. On men's leather gloves, women's and children's leather habit gloves, and extra and demi-length leather gloves, 25 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.‡ On leather caps or hats, leather braces or suspenders, and all other braces or suspenders, of whatever materials composed, except India-rubber, and on leather bottles, patent leather, and on all other manufactures of leather, or of which leather is a component material of chief value, not otherwise specified, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 35 per cent, as per act of '42.

8th. On fur hats, caps, muffs, tippets, and other manufactures of fur, not specified, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 35 per cent, as per act of '42. On hats of wool, and hat bodies or felts, made in whole or in part of wool, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 18 cents each, as per act of '42.

9th. On hats and bonnets for men, women, and children, from Panama, Manilla, Leghorn, Naples, or elsewhere, composed of satin, straw, chip, grass, palm-leaf, rattan, willow, or any other vegetable substance, or of hair, whalebone, or any other material, not otherwise specified, 25 per cent ad valorem, instead of 35 per cent, as per act of '42.

10th. On feathers for beds, and on down of all kinds, on India-rubber oil-cloth, webbing, shoes, braces, suspenders, or other fabrics, or manufactured articles, composed wholly or in part of India-rubber; on all clocks, and on crystals of glass for watches, and on glass or pebbles for spectacles, or eye-glasses, when not set, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42; and so much of the proviso to 10th subdivision of 5th section, as directs the valuation of India-rubber braces or suspenders, at $2 per dozen, repealed.

11th. On paving tiles and bricks, 15 per cent ad valorem, instead of 25 per cent, as per act of '42. On metal buttons, 25 per cent ad valorem, instead of 30 per cent, as per act of '42. On all other buttons and button moulds, 20 per cent, ad valorem, instead of 25 per cent, as per act of '42; and the 1st proviso to the 12th subdivision of 5th section, repealed.

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* Ad valorem duty, ranging from 186 to 243 per cent—average 180, computed by merchants.

† Treasury Document, ad valorem, 53 per cent.

‡ 50 to 75 per cent ad valorem.

SEC. VI.—On white or red leads, litherage, acetate, or chromate of lead, dry or ground in oil; on whiting or Paris white; and all ochres or ochry earths, used in the composition of painters' colors, dry or ground in oil; on sulphate of barytes; on linseed, rapeseed, and hempseed oil; and on putty, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.*

SEC. VII.—On bank, folio, quarto-post of all kinds, and letter and bank note paper; on antiquarian, demy, drawing, &c., (all kinds of paper and pasteboard included and specified,) 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.† On all paper hangings, paper for screens or fire-boards, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 35 per cent, as per act of '42. On all blank books, bound, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 20 cents per pound, as per act of '42. On all other paper, not enumerated herein, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of 15 cents per pound, as per act of '42.

SEC. VIII.—1st. On raw sugar, (commonly called brown sugar,) not advanced beyond its raw state, by claying, boiling, clarifying, or other process, and on brown clayed sugar, 2 cents per pound instead of 2½ cents per pound, as per act of '42. On syrup of sugar or of sugar cane, 1½ cents per pound instead of 2½ cents per pound, as per act of '42. On all other sugars when advanced beyond the raw state, by boiling, clarifying, or other process, and not yet refined, 3 cents per pound instead of 4 cents per pound, as per act of '42. On refined sugars, (whether loaf, lumped, crushed, or pulverized, and where, after being refined, they have been tinctured, colored, or in any way adulterated,) and on sugar candy, 4 cents per pound instead of 6 cents per pound, as per act of '42. On molasses, 3 mills per pound instead of 4½ mills per pound, as per act of '42.

2d. On cocoa, chocolate, cinnamon, oil of cloves, crude camphor, indigo, ivory or bone black, oil of vitriol, and sulphuric acid, 15 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42. On ginger ground, and ginger in the root, when not preserved, woad or pastil, alum, and copperas, and green vitriol, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42. On mace, nutmegs, cloves, Chinese-cassia, pimento, black pepper, camphor refined, opium, glue, gunpowder, blue or Roman vitriol, or sulphate of copper, almonds, prunes, sweet oil of almonds, dates, currants, figs, all nuts not specified, except those used for dying, Muscatel and bloom raisins, either in boxes or jars, and on all other raisins, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.‡

3d. On olive oil in casks, spermaceti oil of foreign fisheries, whale or other fish oil, not sperm, of foreign fisheries, spermaceti or wax candles, and candles of spermaceti or wax, combined, tallow candles, all hard soap except Windsor shaving, and all other perfumed or fancy soaps, and wash-balls and Castile soap, on starch, and pearl or hulled barley, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.

4th. On salt, 20 per cent ad valorem, instead of 8 cents per bushel, as per act of '42.§ On vinegar, beef, pork, hams, bacon, cheese, butter, lard, wheat, barley, rye, oats, Indian corn or maize, wheat flour, Indian meal, and potatoes; on foreign fish, namely, dried or smoked, on mackarel and herrings, pickled or salted, on pickled salmon, and all other fish pickled in barrels, 25 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.

SEC. IX.—1st. On spirits from grain of first proof, 42 cents per gallon; on spirits from grain of second proof, 45 cents per gallon; on spirits from grain of third proof, 48 cents per gallon; on spirits from grain of fourth proof, 52 cents per gallon; on spirits from grain of fifth proof, 60 cents per gallon; on spirits from grain of above fifth proof, 75 cents per gallon, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42. On spirits from other material than grain, first and second proof, 38 cents per gallon; on spirits from other material than grain, third proof, 42 cents per gallon; on spirits from other material than grain, fourth proof, 48 cents per gallon; on spirits from other material than grain, fifth proof, 57 cents per gallon; on spirits from other material than grain, above fifth proof, 70 cents per gallon, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.

2d. On wines of all sorts, 30 per cent ad valorem, instead of the various duties, as per act of '42.

SEC. X.—Unmanufactured cotton, guano, and sulphate of quinine, shall all be exempt from duty, instead of the various duties imposed, as per act of '42.

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* 100 to 146 per cent ad valorem.

† From 35 per cent ad valorem, per Treasury Document, to 97 per cent, computed by merchants.

‡ Spices, from 50 to 90 per cent ad valorem, black pepper, 130 per cent.

§ 80 per cent ad valorem—Turk's island, 144.

SEC. XI.—So much of the act of 1842, as directs the manner in which the market value or wholesale price of goods, wares, and merchandise, imported into the United States, and subject to ad valorem duties, or duties based upon the value of the square yard, or any specified quantity or parcel of such goods, shall be ascertained, be and the same is hereby so modified, that to said value or price to be ascertained as provided for in said section, shall be added only the costs and charges, which shall have been incurred to and at the place of exportation.

SEC. XII.—All ad valorem duties under this act or the act of 1842, of which it is amendatory, which exceed 25 per cent ad valorem, shall be reduced to that rate on the 1st September, 1845.

SEC. XIII.—Such parts of the act of 1842, as are not touched by this act, to remain in as full force as if re-enacted.

SEC. XIV.—The 12th section of the act of 1842, so modified, that all goods imported from within, or this side of the Cape of Good Hope, may remain in the public stores 120 instead of 60 days; and those from beyond the Cape of Good Hope, 150 instead of 90 days: Provided 6 per cent interest be paid from time of entry to time of payment, on the duties, as part of the duties chargeable on said goods.

ART. IX.—TOBACCO AGENCY IN EUROPE.

NEXT to cotton, tobacco is one of the most important staples of our country. Our soil is peculiarly adapted to its culture, and the means of extending its sale and consumption in Europe, where high and prohibitive duties are imposed, and where the trade is entirely monopolized by governments for revenue purposes, have for many years been sought by our diplomatic agents abroad in obedience to special instructions.

In 1836, Congress made an appropriation for maintaining a commercial agent in the north of Europe, whose specific duty should be to obtain all available information concerning its growth, sale, and use, in Prussia and adjacent countries, and to ascertain, if possible, the ways and means by which the foreign consumption of our various qualities might be increased. An agent was appointed, who collected some statistical information of a local character, and who was continued until 1843, when the president, not having heard from him for nearly a year, ordered his recal, and appointed in his place, J. G. Harris, Esq., of Tennessee, extending his commission to a range through the south of Europe.

Mr. Harris left the United States in June of 1843, and arrived at London, in the month following, where, by the politeness of Mr. Everett, he made the acquaintance of Mr. M'Gregor, of the board of trade, so celebrated for his free commercial principles, and his signal ability as a late commercial agent of that government for the continent. After availing himself of all the facts connected with the tobacco trade of Great Britain, he travelled over to Vienna, thence down, through Italy, and along the Mediterranean to France, embodying his observations in a series of reports now on file at Washington, and which, we hope, may be printed by Congress. His appointment being limited to a year, he returned a few days since; and while he remained in this city, we embraced the opportunity of obtaining from him a few interesting facts touching the recent movements of the speculators of France, as also the probability of a reduction of the high duties in England and northern Germany. His letter, confined simply to a reply to our queries, is as follows:—

NEW YORK, *March* 15, 1844.

SIR:—You are right in supposing that while in France I obtained some information concerning the late "adjudication of tobacco," for 1844. Taking Paris in my route homeward, from Austria and Italy, I made it convenient to be in that city when the contracts for the present year were entered into, and was with an American merchant in the office of the Minister of Finance, where all the bidders were assembled, on the day that the proposals were opened.

It was reported there, and very generally believed, that the tobacco crop of the United States, grown in 1843, was much larger than usual; and, under the impression that the markets would be full in all this year, the bids were lower than in times past. The contract for supplying the quality of western tobacco, called *crossede*, was obtained by the Messrs. Rothchilds, at a rate much lower than it usually sells for on the levee, at New Orleans. And it is my belief that the speculators, and their agents, are now laying or carrying out their plans, at the west, to bring the planters down to their ruinous terms. They are under heavy penalties to deliver at Havre, Marseilles, &c., before the 1st of January next, quantities, embracing more than one-fourth of the usual crop west of the mountains, which they must purchase at prices lower than any that have existed for years, or make a losing business of it. The very finest and choicest descriptions, they are to purchase at New Orleans at a price not exceeding $3 a $3¼, for 100 lbs., nett, and the second merchantable qualities at $1½ a $1¾, or they will sustain losses in fulfilling their contracts. That they have predicated their low bids upon a calculation to force a reduction in the price of the western tobacco, to a point even below these figures, I have not the slightest doubt. The policy, so far as it is revealed, is to tempt the planters on the great western rivers to hasten their crops down to New Orleans, by offering and paying very fair prices for small lots, early in the season; and, after the stocks shall have accumulated under this temptation, to reduce the prices to $1, $2, and $3 per hundred, for the several qualities of firsts, seconds, and thirds, at which prices they suppose holders may be forced to sell.

It is my firm conviction that the planters of the west may prevent this, to some extent, by holding up their crop, or by sending only a portion of it to New Orleans, say one half, or less, and that of an inferior quality; at the same time instructing their agents not to sell for less than $2¼, $3½, and $4½, which prices, in my opinion, they may easily obtain. Indeed, the foreign speculators are under such heavy penalties to fulfil their contracts, that they *must have* the tobacco, and the planters not only have the power to set their own prices, but they may be sure that there is no necessity of their incurring the expense of transporting it down the rivers, for the contractors will themselves go up after it.

This policy of holding back a part of the crop, was adopted in 1837, at a time when prices had fallen to $1, $2, and $3. The consequence was that in a few months prices increased two fold, and speculators were running from farm to farm, and landing to landing, hunting up small parcels even at that. The low prices of that year very naturally occasioned a diminution in the next year's culture, the planter having temporarily turned his attention to other and more profitable products, and prices accordingly rose to $8, $10, and $12. It is a well

known fact, also, that the planters, at that time, obtained as much for the half of their crop, as they would have received for the whole, had they hurried it all in to market. Cause and effect have not changed, and, in my judgment, the example of 1837 should be followed in 1844.

Another, and not less important consideration, in this connexion, is the general belief, in England, that in the course of this year, if not before the prorogation of the British Parliament, the existing duty of seventy-two cents per pound, on our tobacco, will be reduced to one-half or one-third that sum, and it is rendered nearly certain that a diplomatic arrangement is about to be made by our minister at Berlin, with the German States that have united for commercial purposes, by which the present duty of nearly four dollars per hundred will be considerably reduced. If this should be accomplished, the sale and consumption of our tobacco, in England, would be extended, and there would probably be an annual market for several thousand hogsheads more in the north of Europe. And, to this weighty consideration should be added the fact that France—now requiring from twenty to twenty-five thousand hogsheads of our tobacco, and raising at home nearly as much more, for which the French planter is paid from four to eight dollars—will at once come to the conclusion that its revenue may be increased (and *revenue* is the sole object of the monopoly) by diminishing the French culture, and purchasing more extensively the American qualities, offered so very cheap. This course they have already taken to some extent, and have this year determined to purchase several thousand hogsheads more of the American qualities than they had in 1843, and to dispense, in a great measure, with the Hungarian tobacco.

It would seem quite clear, therefore, that our western planters cannot possibly lose any thing by holding back a part of the crop, for there is certainly to be an increased demand. The foreign consumer has contracted a taste for it, and he must and will have it. The speculators want it, and they would rather hunt it up at the river landings, and pay two prices for it, than forfeit the heavy bonds which they are under to fulfil their contracts.

With reference to the tobacco of the eastern states, Virginia, Maryland, &c., it bears better prices abroad than the western qualities; not because it is considered so much superior to the Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, &c., but because there is so much of it constantly in market, and the crop of the west has so rapidly increased from year to year. Owing too, perhaps, to the fact that our eastern planters set their own prices to a greater or less extent, diminishing the culture, or holding up a part of the crop, at proper times, in order to bring about remunerating prices.

In reply to your inquiry, whether it is probable that those governments of Europe which monopolize the tobacco trade within their dominions, can be induced to abolish their exclusive systems, and permit us to trade freely with their people in that article, I am constrained to believe that all persuasion must continue, as heretofore, to be without effect. For France, which annually derives nearly $20,000,000, and Austria, about $12,000,000, cannot be expected to give up so great a source of revenue in consideration of any arguments, or any commercial advantages that our country can offer in return. But in England, and in the German states composing the Zoll Verien, where tariffs only exist, there is some prospect of a reduction of existing high duties. In England, the duty is

so high that it operates as a premium upon smuggling; and the illicit trade has recently been carried on to such an extent, that all the honest manufacturers have become unusually clamorous for a reduction of the premium thus paid to the contrabandist. About the time I left Europe, the British government was instituting a searching inquiry, not only concerning the great cases recently detected, but into the whole system. A committee was then sitting in London, at the head of which was Lord Somerset, one of the most influential members of the British administration; and I learned, from a source entitled to great credit, that many members of the government had come to the conclusion that, although a reduction of the present duty might affect the revenue a little, for two or three years, yet it would not suffer ultimately, inasmuch as smuggling would, in a great measure, be prevented, and the duty paid on a much greater quantity. The question of reduction is evidently before the British government, at this time, under more favorable circumstances than any that have attended former investigations; and it was stated, on good private authority, that several persons who had become rich by smuggling, and *retired from business*, were induced to come before the committee and give evidence of the alarming extent to which the contraband trade had been carried, and the extensive system of bribery and corruption that it involved.

You are aware that, in the last few years, the government has nearly done away with the superintendence of the excise officers over the tobacco manufacturing establishments, and the wholesale and retail dealers; and the impression now is, that unless the duty is reduced, there will be no alternative but to revive again that obnoxious system. This brings all the power of the manufacturers and retailers to bear in favor of reduction. The prospect of their success is better than it ever was before: for, since the question was last agitated, the Chinese war, and the war in India have been finally terminated, and the new income tax has proved to be much more productive than had been expected, all which, together with the general revival of trade, will render the administration in a better condition to meet the *temporary* consequences of a reduction.

In the event that the contemplated reduction should be made, it is the opinion of some of the best informed on the subject, that the consumption of our tobacco in England would be doubled, and make an opening for the western tobacco, for which, at present, there is little or no demand. This, in my judgment, is not the least of the considerations that should induce the western planters to hold up a part of the crop, and protect themselves from the sacrifices that may otherwise await them at New Orleans.

During the year I have spent in Europe as a commercial agent of the United States, I have endeavored patiently to investigate every thing connected with the tobacco trade of the countries through which I passed, and have forwarded all my facts and observations to the State Department. It has afforded me pleasure to give you the above facts respecting the late French contracts, and to explain, so far as I am able, the probable effect of the low prices upon the tobacco trade of our country.

Very respectfully, your ob't serv't,

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ. J. GEO. HARRIS.

The export of tobacco from the United States, since 1821, has nearly doubled, but that increase has been mostly to the north of Europe, say

Holland and Germany; while to Great Britain the export has scarcely increased at all, notwithstanding that the population has increased some 7,000,000 souls.

In fact, the consumption of tobacco, per head, as charged with duty, has decreased since the commencement of the present century, in proportion to the increase of duty. Parliamentary tables furnish us with the following statistics in relation to this matter:—

CONSUMPTION OF TOBACCO IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

	Lbs. consumed.	Duty per lb. s. d.	Population.	Av. consumption per head. oz.	Am'nt. Duty Received. £
1801,.....	10,514,998	1 7 6.20	10,942,666	15,37	923,855
1811,.....	14,923,243	2 2 13.10	12,596,803	18,95	1,710,848
1821,.....	15,983,198	4 0	14,391,631	14,43	2,630,415
1831,.....	15,350,018	3 0	16,539,318	14,84	2,338,107
1841,.....	16,380,893	3 0	18,532,235	14,52	2,716,217

This presents a constant decrease in the consumption, per head, but the result in the case of Ireland is much more marked—as follows:—

	Lbs. consumed.	Duty per lb. s. d.	Population.	Av. consumption per head. oz.	Am'nt. Duty Received. £
1801,.....	6,389,754	1 3 1.10	5,451,002	18,95	285,482
1811,.....	6,553,024	1 7	7,036,008	17,35	552,082
1821,.....	2,614,954	3 0	6,801,827	6,15	528,168
1831,.....	4,183,823	2 0	7,767,401	8,61	626,485
1841,.....	5,478,767	3 0	8,179,359	10,71	863,946

The highest consumption for the United Kingdom was, it appears, in 1811, when the abundance of depreciated bank paper, then serving as a currency, made the tax comparatively light. When money is very cheap, taxes are easily paid, but the same taxes become exceedingly onerous when money is dear. In 1821, both the rate of tax was enormously increased, and the currency made very dear by the resumption of specie payments by the Bank of England. Hence the enormous falling off in the consumption visible in that year, both in England and Ireland, more particularly the latter country. Since then the currency has become better adjusted, and the consumption has increased under the same tax. Now the exports of tobacco to England with the total export in each year has been as follows:—

TOBACCO EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES TO ENGLAND.

For ten years to	Hhds.	Total from U. States.	Value.	For ten years to—	Hhds.	Total from U. States.	Value.
1831,...	241,919	824,245	$56,889,291	1837,...	20,723	100,232	6,223,483
1832,...	26,372	86,718	5,184,863	1838,...	24,312	100,593	7,969,449
1833,...	36,176	106,806	6,291,540	1839,...	30,068	78,995	10,449,135
1834,...	23,772	83,153	6,044,941	1840,...	26,235	119,448	9,883,957
1835,...	30,658	87,979	6,923,714	1841,...	41,648	147,828	12,576,703
1836,...	27,563	94,353	8,608,188	1842,...	36,886	166,113	9,540,755
	36,822	109,442	10,494,104				

The greatest increase in the export to England was in the years 1840 to 1841. For the three years, 1839, '40, '41, the British customs returns gives the following result:—

Years.	Imported.	Ent'd for consumption.	Duty.	
1839,.....lbs.	35,609,183	22,971,406	£3,431,907	$16,473,227
1840,.....	35,637,626	22,902,380	3,555,956	16,924,590
1841,.....	43,935,151	21,871,438	3,550,825	17,044,955

This affords an indication of how large a quantity must have been smuggled under the present duty of 3*s.* per lb. There are no precise data by which to arrive at the expense of smuggling. If by a reduction of the duties on tobacco, the average of the consumption of the United Kingdom is restored to where it was in 1811, which was 5 oz. per head above the present consumption, an increase of the demand equal to 8,300,000 lbs. will take place, and will progress, probably, in proportion to the increased production of the western states, so as to relieve the Virginia planters from the pressure which the increased supply from those sections causes, and which is evinced in the increasing deliveries at New Orleans.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

At the date of our last number, we mentioned the fluctuation which had taken place in the value of money. During the month which has since elapsed, the abundance of money has been seemingly on the increase, and the rate in the regular discount market has not been over 4 a 5 per cent, and "at call" on stock securities, at less than that. The speculation in produce has continued to some extent both in cotton and in flour. The stock of the former article has continued to accumulate in all the ports of the United States, and the exports continues very small. The situation of the crop now, and at the same time last year, and the movement for the month of February in each year is as follows:—

RECEIPTS OF STOCKS, AND EXPORTS OF COTTON, FROM SEPTEMBER 1, TO MARCH 1.

	1843. Bales.	1844. Bales.	1843. Bales.	1844. Bales.
Receipts,.....	1,649,470	1,265,094	315,469	257,055
Exports to Great Britain,.....	749,331	307,466	156,562	65,070
" France,.....	199,431	119,331	25,580	16,463
Total export,.....	1,028,592	451,231	193,233	76,648
Stock,.....	467,643	648,554	96,084	137,562

The receipts of cotton in the month of February, as compared with last year, are, 257,000 bales against 315,469 bales, a falling off of 58,469 bales only, while the export for the month has declined 117,000 bales, showing a corresponding increase of stock during the month. This, with the small exports of other produce, has greatly diminished the supply of bills, at a time when the demand for remittance has been greatly enhanced by the large imports which have taken place during the three months which have elapsed of the present year. The value of the imports into New York are not far from $25,000,000 for the quarter. These imports have been paid for in some degree by the credit bills drawn by English houses here at the high rates which were obtained for bills. The extreme low rate for money in England, the high price of bills here, and the speculation feeling in stocks, cotton, and some other articles of produce, favored the drawing of money to this side for employment in those channels, by which operation the imports were paid for in some degree, and means furnished to hold cotton, and to operate in stocks. Hence the abundance of money has been in no wise diminished by the withholding of cotton from market, and as that moves forward, the supply of bills increases, and the rates are falling. The best bills may now be had at 8 a 8¼ per cent, and the probability is that renewed imports of specie must soon take place, unless a change in the value of money in England should cause a recal of the money loaned here, which would cause an increased demand above ordinary remittances equal to the extra supply furnished by

drawing it to this side. It is highly probable, however, that the bulk of the imports for the year have been made, and the indications of the markets favor that supposition, as the supply so far fully equals the demand, and prices of most descriptions of goods have a downward tendency. The state of the country in the interior indicates a fair promise of business, the stocks of produce being exceedingly large, and prices generally much in advance of those of last year. There is a great deal of speculation feeling, however, in the interior, in grain, based in a great measure upon the fact that the supply in England will, in most years be short, and the degree of scarcity will affect in an eminent degree the state of the market here. Last year the arrival of the April steamer, with accounts of a supposed scarcity in England, caused a rise in prices which extended rapidly over the western country; and strong impressions seem to prevail that a similar rise will be effected this year. Hence there is a great indisposition on the part of the farmers to sell; at the same time the abundance of money has stimulated a disposition to buy for a rise, and grain has advanced so far that, in the present prospect of the flour market, the operations of millers are checked. All the sales made by the farmers are, however, at good prices, and give them the means of renewing their purchases of goods, and by increasing the general abundance of money in the western states, affording a reasonable ground for the anticipation of a fair business in the summer and fall on a cash basis. The experience of the past years shows that this mode of conducting business does not create a demand for money; on the other hand, it seems rather to enhance its abundance. This tendency of money to accumulate in the banks without a corresponding demand for employment, promotes a disposition to employ it in purposes of speculation, and large sums have been loaned upon the stock market. This, during the last sixty days, has been still further enhanced by the large imports, throwing important sums into the hands of the government, and which is lodged with the banks on deposite. In this city, these deposites are made alternately with the Bank of Commerce, Bank of America, and Merchants' Bank, each institution enjoying the deposites one month in rotation; and the disposition of each bank to avail itself to the utmost of the funds while in its possession, induces it to loan freely on stocks, while the deposites are coming in, and to withdraw them as rapidly when the transfer to other institutions commences. This operation has been one cause of the violent fluctuations which the stock market has at times exhibited, but generally the prices of stocks have not improved in a proportion to the decreased value of money, a fact which may be ascribed to the continued delinquency of some of the leading states. Stocks have advanced here under the plenteousness of money; the disposition of foreigners seems to have been, to avail themselves of that advance, to get clear of the stocks they hold. Hence the quantity hanging upon this market unabsorbed for permanent investments has been constantly on the increase, and nothing but the absolute want of other modes of employing money, seemingly supports present prices. Some movement has been made in the legislatures of Maryland and Pennsylvania towards paying their debts. In the former state a law has been enacted requiring the state treasurer to resume the payment of the state dividends on the 1st of April, 1845. The law does not, however, provide any additional means for the discharge of the debt to them hitherto enjoyed; and the bill to complete the Cumberland canal was lost. In Pennsylvania, a bill has been introduced into the house providing means to meet the estimated deficits in the revenue, preparatory to resumption of dividends in August next. These movements may end in the desirable consummation of removing from those leading states the foul stain of dishonor which has so long rested upon them, and overshadowed the national reputation. In Ohio, the bill to authorise the business of banking has become a law. It is in all respects similar to the free banking law of this state, and makes Ohio 6 per cent stock the basis of the operations. The effect will probably be similar to that of the New York law, in creating large issues of

paper money, which will finally have an evil influence upon the fortunes of the state. The produce of Ohio seeks a market for sale, in common with those of the other western states. And the creation of a large amount of paper money is likely to advance prices in a manner to make the produce of the other states the best purchases, and therefore to supersede that of Ohio. There has been an anticipation that the passage of the law in question would induce a demand for the stocks, and by so doing relieve this market of some of the surplus upon it. It would appear, however, that even should the bill become a law, the demand for this purpose cannot be large, inasmuch as that large amounts are already held by the institutions of that state, and will be applicable to employment under the new law.

The import of goods into the port of New York have been large, and the stocks have accumulated in a manner to induce the belief that prices will be low. The exports of produce have, however, also been large, as compared with last year. The following table will show the comparative imports and exports for the port of New York from January 1st to March 1st, 1843 and 1844:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK, FROM JANUARY 1, TO MARCH 1.

EXPORTS.	1844.	1843.
Apples, ... bbls.	1,086	573
Ashes, pot, ...	2,699	983
" pearl, ...	594	32
Beef, pickled, ...	17,795	2,542
" dried, ... cwt.	260	2,276
Beeswax, ...	1,607	1,036
Butter, ... firkins	2,520	4,501
Candles, sperm, ... boxes	1,664	2,642
" tallow, ...	4,431	3,397
Cassia, ... mats and cases	425	2,216
Cheese, ... casks	2,944	920
" ..... boxes	7,006	4,194
Clover-seed, ... tierces	711	610
Coffee, ... bags	682	6,108
Corn, ... bushels	5,457	6,338
Corn meal, ... hhds.	269	670
" ..... bbls.	2,917	2,796
Cordage, ... coils	544	238
Cotton, ... bales	47,517	47,758
Dom. goods, bales and cases	1,531	1,513
Fish, dry cod, ... cwts.	7,729	5,782
" mackerel, ... bbls.	292	579
" herring, ...	1,223	346
Flaxseed, ... tierces	2,127	3,575
Flour, wheat, ... bbls.	53,287	22,667
" rye, ...	450	1,119
Hams and bacon, ... cwts.	1,166	877
Hides, ... No.	16,796	25,827
Hops, ... bales	76	505
Lard, ... kegs	29,012	22,714
Shooks, hhd. and pipes, No.	8,638	2,640
Nails, ... casks	2,842	2,063
Rosin, ... bbls.	16,529	3,640
Sp. turpentine, ...	343	284
Tar, ...	2,038	669
Turpentine, ...	48,386	23,231
Linseed oil, ... galls.	1,200	1,000
Whale oil, ...	48,673	58,280
Sperm oil, ...	22,316	35,457
Pimento, ... bags		
Pork, ... bbls.	2,680	4,078
Rice, ... tierces	6,214	6,514

IMPORTS	1844.	1843.
Brandy, ... pipes	56	...
" ..... half pipes	2,114	36
" bls. and q. casks	1,160	6
Coal, ... tons	5,644	2,769
Cotton, ... bales	149,960	81,031
Coffee, ... casks	2	5
" ..... bbls.	.....	12
" ..... bags	64,134	37,297
Cocoa, ...	3,165	432
Cochineal, ...	43	57
Duck, ... bales	15	151
" ..... pieces	2,380	5,694
Earthenware, cr. and c'ks	4,738	1,538
Figs, ... packages	16,365	8,496
Gin, ... pipes	319	89
Glass, ... boxes	.....	181
Hides, ... bales	14	23
" ..... No.	95,012	44,285
Hemp, ... tons	569	1,079
Indigo, ... cases	138	131
" ..... ceroons	216	225
Iron, bar, ... tons	3,128	1,821
" pig, ...	1,413	476
" sheet, ... bundles	3,105	1,861
Lead, ... pigs	21,784	25,435
Molasses, ... hhds.	6,852	4,799
" ..... tierces	588	603
" ..... bbls.	5,655	8,895
Pimento, ... bags	1,660	2,099
Olive oil, ... casks	61	5
" ..... boxes	2,273	625
" ..... baskets	4,015	150
Pepper, ... bags	416	1,000
Rum, ... punch.	250	33
Raisins, ... casks	161	...
" ..... boxes	19,492	...
Rags, ... bales	1,918	231
Rice, ... tierces	8,593	11,363
Salt, ... bushels	84,632	132,144
Saltpetre, ...	495	.....
Sugar, ... hhds.	7,828	10,907
" ..... tierces	54	85

Imports and Exports of the Port of New York, etc.—Continued.

Exports.	1844.	1843.	Imports.	1844.	1843.
Soap,.....boxes	7,850	7,047	Sugar,.....bbls.	1,229	151
Tea, black,.....lbs.	4,067	4,040	" .....boxes	6,005	2,630
" Hyson skin,.....	1,614	3,120	" .....bags	2,000	15,621
" Hyson and Y. H.,.....	32,974	12,340	Tobacco,.....hhds.	779	667
" Gunpowder, &c.,.....	15,539	13,240	" bales and cer's	2,831	3,236
Tobacco,.....hhds.	882	690	Wool,.....bales	1,889	576
" ..bales and cases	2,666	1,462	Wine,.....pipes	43	5
" manufac.,...kegs	1,824	1,514	" hhds. and hf. pipes	606	67
Whalebone,.....cwts.	397	450	" .....qr. casks	972	71
Wheat,.....bush.	18,666	3,094	" .....Ind. bbls.	217	81
Wool,.....bales	.....	33	" .....boxes	2,995	192

The general result here apparent, is that of a large increase of business, and an accumulation of stock. The stock of flour here at the close of navigation was unusually large, but the export as compared with last year, for the sixty days elapsed, has increased 30,000 bbls., mostly to the east and to England. The course of business this year at the south, has caused an unusual increase of the shipments of produce to New York because a large proportion of the money required to hold cotton has been drawn from here, and the produce sent forward, to cover the advances. The abundance of money here has stimulated this movement, and stocks of produce held both south and west, are held to a great extent by capital emanating from the Atlantic cities, in expectation of an increased export trade. The dissemination of the money through the interior has produced an abundance of money, with a plentiful supply of eastern bills, of which the dealers seemingly are availing themselves preparatory to their spring visits to New York for the purchase of goods. At all points of the west the exchanges are low and regular, and the supply abundant. Perhaps there never was a time when rates of bills were more uniform and cheap than they have prevailed at all points since the general resumption of the banks, and the cessation of irredeemable paper to be the local currency. In Alabama, the state money still continues to circulate at a discount, but that depreciation is no longer identified with the rate of exchange. The abundance of produce furnishes ample means of remittance from all sections of the union, more especially when purchases of goods are confined to cost sales. In former years, when an immense number of banks were spread over the western states, large sales of goods were made in the Atlantic cities, by persons without capital, on long credit. The medium of these operations were long dated notes, payable at banks in the interior, and discounted in the cities. The purchases thus made, far exceeded the value of produce exported, and when remittances were required at the maturity of the notes, there was no other means than the credits of the banks; when these were exhausted. failure was the result. The employment of large capital in banking in the interior served to diminish, by the amount of the dividends, the real means of remittance for commercial purposes, because the capital being for the most part owned in the Atlantic cities, its profits were a constant drain upon the place of its location. That capital was employed for the most part, not in loans to producers, but in promoting sales of imported goods to those producers, and stimulated extravagance, while they exhausted the actual wealth of the people. The evidence of the bank of Kentucky upon this point, is useful, A late report states as follows:—

"When a bank is located at a shipping and importing point, or at a manufacturing point, we find the exporting and importing merchants and manufacturers congregated at those points, and those are the persons who *usually borrow money* and sell bills—they form the usual and constant customers of the banks. The merchants and manufacturers residing more distant, *borrow from individuals*, and make other arrangements, by purchasing on credit, &c., in the transaction of their business, because of the trouble, *delay and expense of bank accommodations* made at a distance. The *farmers are not*

usual borrowers from the banks, and have only applied to the banks in cases of emergency, except those persons who have combined merchandise, manufacturing or trading, with their business of farming, and they have generally been governed in their applications to the bank by the contiguity of their locations; but as an exception to this general rule, persons in the *immediate vicinity of the banks* have been *tempted to become borrowers*, because of their vicinity, and they *have been drawn in as endorsers*, and been *compelled to assume the debts*."

Banking beyond a certain point is detrimental to agriculture. It is only when the produce has all been got in, that the loans of bank credits to shipping merchants, of a sufficient amount and for a sufficient length of time, not over sixty days, to buy the produce, send it to market, and obtain returns, is useful. This business must, it is evident, follow, and not lead, production; and when the farmers have acquired sufficient wealth not to require prompt advances, it is for their interest to dispense with banks altogether. The circulation of individual credits, payable in the constitutional currency, is by far the safest and most legitimate means of intercourse.

Since our last, a bill has been introduced into the House of Representatives from the committee of ways and means, making important changes in the tariff, as now levied. The leading features of the new bill are to reduce the general average from its present rate, 35.82 per cent to 30 per cent, until September, 1845, after which, 25 per cent shall be the maximum. It substitutes ad valorem rates for many of the specific charges now imposed, and makes the foreign cost and charges the basis of valuation. It also extends the time for goods to be entitled to drawback. These are the leading features of the new bill, and its details are seen in the following table:*—

PRESENT AND PROPOSED TARIFF.

Articles.	Present duty.	Proposed duty.
Wool, costing less than 7 cents per lb.,	5 per cent.	15 per cent.
Wool, costing *over* 7 cents per lb.,	3 cents per lb. and 30 "	30 "
Woollen manufactures,	40 "	30 "
Carpeting, Brussels, &c., rugs,	50 cents per sq. yard.	30 "
Carpeting, Venetian, &c.,	30 " "	30 "
Blankets, costing under 75 cents,	15 per cent.	10 "
Flannels, baizes, &c.,	14 cents per sq. yard.	30 "
Ready-made clothing,	50 per cent.	30 "
Boots and bootees,	$1 25 per pair.	30 "
Shoes and slippers, silk or prunella,	25 cents "	30 "
Shoes and slippers of leather,	30 " "	30 "
Shoes, children's,	15 " "	30 "
Cotton bagging,	4 cents per sq. yard.	30 "
Cotton goods, plain,	6 " "	25 "
Cotton goods, coloured or printed,	9 " "	25 "
Silk, raw,	50 cents per lb.	12½ "
Silk, manufactured,	$2 50 "	20 "
Sewing silk, twist, &c.,	$2 per lb.	20 "
Floss silk,	25 per cent.	15 "
Flax, tow, &c.,	$20 per ton.	25 "
Oil cloths,	10 cents per yard.	30 "
Iron, in bars and bolts,	$17 per ton.	$15 per ton.
Iron, if rolled,	$25 "	$20 "
Iron for railroads,	the same as other iron.	$10 "
Iron, pig,	$9 per ton.	$7 "
Chains, chain cables, &c.,	2½ cents per lb.	30 per cent.
Old or scrap iron,	$10 per ton.	$6 per ton.
Iron wire,	5 to 11 cents per lb.	30 per cent.
Screws, called wood,	12 "	30 "
Steel, German, cast or shear,	$1 50 per 112 lbs.	$1 50 per 112 lbs.
Other steel,	$2 50 "	$1 50 "
Pins, pack, solid-headed,	40 cents per lb.	30 per cent.

* For a complete synopsis of this bill, see a former part of this Magazine.

PRESENT AND PROPOSED TARIFF—Continued.

Articles.	Present duty.	Proposed duty.
German silver ware,	30 per cent.	20 per cent.
Coal,	$1 75 per ton.	$1 per ton.
Coke,	5 cents per bushel.	30 per cent.
Glassware, cut,	25 to 45 cents per lb.	30 "
Glassware, moulded or pressed,	10 to 14 "	30 "
Glass, window, cylinder,	2 to 6 cents per sq. foot.	30 "
Glass, window, crown,	3½ to 10 " "	30 "
Glass, bottles and vials,	$1 75 to $3 per groce.	30 "
Glass, polished plate,	5 to 12 cents per sq. foot.	20 "
Glass, polished, if silvered,	20 per cent additional.	25 "
China, porcelain, stone and earthenware,	30 per cent.	20 "
Leather,	sole 6 cents, upper 8 cents per lb.	25 "
Sugar, raw,	2½ cents per lb.	2 cents per lb.
Sugar, clayed or boiled,	4 "	3 "
Sugar, refined, and candies,	6 "	4 "
Syrup of sugar,	2½ "	1½ "
Salt,	8 cents per 56 lbs.	20 per cent.
Spirits, from grain,	60 to 90 cents per gall.	42 to 75 cents.
Spirits, brandy, &c.,	60 cents to $1 "	38 to 70 cents.
Wines, different sorts,	6 to 60 cents "	30 per cent.
Cotton, raw,	3 cents per lb.	Free.
Hemp, unmanufactured,	$25 *a* $40 per ton.	30 per cent.
Cordage,	4½ *a* 5 cents per lb.	30 "
Molasses,	4½ mills "	3 mills per lb.
Indigo,	5 cents "	15 per cent.
Black pepper,	5 " "	30 "
Pimento,	5 " " "	30 "
Nutmegs,	30 " "	30 "
Cloves,	8 " "	30 "
Cassia,	5 " "	30 "
Raisins, and all other dried fruits,	2 *a* 3 " "	30 "
Oil, Linseed,	25 cents per gall.	30 "
Lead, white and red,	4 cents per lb.	30 "

It will be observed the reductions are large and general, more especially where ad valorem duties are substituted for specific rates now imposed. On bar iron for general purposes the reduction is $5 per ton, and on the same article, if applied to railroad purposes, the reduction is $15 per ton. On chains and chain cables, from $50 per ton, the rate is changed to 30 per cent ad valorem. A very important feature in the bill is, that it does away with the minimum principle, which has been in operation since 1816; and instead of assuming a cost on which to cast ad valorem duties, the actual foreign cost is to be taken. Thus, under the present tariff, cotton goods costing under 20 cents the square yard, are assumed to have cost 20 cents, and an ad valorem duty of 30 per cent is cast upon that, which is, in fact, a specific duty of 6 cents per square yard; this duty it is now proposed to change to an ad valorem duty of 25 per cent on the actual cost a yard, of plain cotton, which cost abroad 8 cents per yard, will pay 2 cents duty, instead of 6 cents, as now. The ascendency of cotton manufactures in this country is now so great, particularly in those low priced goods, that the duty, like that upon flour, becomes comparatively unimportant; because the disposition to send them here for sale, is gradually ceasing. An important part of our commerce is the carrying trade, or the import of goods from South America and the West Indies, entitled to debenture and re-export to Europe and elsewhere. This business has of late declined, and in some degree consequent upon the reduction of 2½ per cent from the drawbacks paid, which, in fact, amounts to a duty of 2½ per cent, for landing and reshipping. This in a great degree hampers the trade, and has a tendency to throw out of employ a large portion of tonnage.

In the adjustment of the tariff, the consideration above all others to be arrived at, is stability. Since the close of the last war, the country has been kept in a continual fer-

ment by the constant agitation of the tariff question. The tariffs of 1816–24–26–28–32–33–41–42, and the present proposed one, have followed each other in quick succession, and attended by the constant fluctuation in value which they excite, to promote a speculative and gambling character in our commercial transactions, which is of itself highly detrimental to our national interests. The grade of a tariff, be it high or low, is of very small consequence, if stability can be arrived at, and both manufacturers and merchants, as well as farmers, be saved from those constant fluctuations which are in the highest degree detrimental to the interests of all classes. In this country, to a greater or less extent, a paper currency must always prevail, and the volume of the currency indicated in the range of prices will be higher or lower than that of other countries, according to the range of duties imposed by the government. If the duties are low, the currency in usual years cannot advance over a given point before the rise in prices shall have induced imports, promoted the export of coin, and involved a depletion in the currency. Higher duties, or increased expense of import, will allow of a higher range of prices before the same result is produced. This fluctuation of the currency, which has of late years been fraught with such disastrous consequences, produces enough of speculation, without the powerful incentive of vacillating legislation. Whenever apprehensions of new duties are entertained, the import of the article is greatly promoted, in order to take advantage of the anticipated rise. This operation usually produces a fall in the price, consequent upon the increased stock. On the other hand, when duties are to be removed at a given time, those dealing in the articles delay their operations until the reduction has taken place, and a rise in price is produced by the short supply. These are unnatural movements, and give an unhealthy character to trade, which would not exist if legislation were steady and uniform.

We have received from Trieste several valuable official documents, and tabular views of the commerce of that port. The following table, compiled from these documents, exhibits the imports of American cotton into Trieste, from 1815 to 1842, inclusive:—

Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.
1815,.....	322	1822,.....	838	1829,.....	17,748	1836,.....	23,450
1816,.....	434	1823,.....	1,550	1830,.....	7,111	1837,.....	20,871
1817,.....	1,973	1824,.....	144	1831,.....	7,729	1838,.....	20,702
1818,.....	217	1825,.....	170	1832,.....	6,762	1839,.....	18,030
1819,.....	737	1826,.....	3,271	1833,.....	4,940	1840,.....	19,623
1820,.....	431	1827,.....	3,802	1834,.....	13,478	1841,.....	20,000
1821,.....	679	1828,.....	4,078	1835,.....	17,892	1842,.....	26,300

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF SPECIE AND BULLION.

We addressed a letter to the Hon. John C. Spencer, the secretary of the treasury, at Washington, a short time since, requesting a copy of the statement exhibiting the value of specie, &c., imported and exported annually, from 1821 to 1843; which, we had seen it stated in the Madisonian, had been compiled at the department, but not published. We have now the pleasure of laying before our readers an official copy of the statement, and the accompanying note of the secretary of the treasury:—

WASHINGTON, *Treasury Department, March* 13, 1844.

Dear Sir—I enclose herewith a statement of the importation and exportation of specie, from the year 1821 to 1843, inclusive, agreeable to the request contained in your letter of the 24th ultimo; and I avail myself of the opportunity to assure you of the pleasure it would give me to forward from the department any information you may require, in relation to the commerce and currency of the country, for your valuable Journal.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

J. C. SPENCER.

FREEMAN HUNT, Ed. Merchants' Magazine.

A STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE VALUE OF SPECIE AND BULLION, IMPORTED AND EXPORTED ANNUALLY FROM 1821 to 1843.

IMPORTED.

Years ending Sept. 30	Bullion. Gold. *Dollars.*	Bullion. Silver. *Dollars.*	Specie. Gold. *Dollars.*	Specie. Silver. *Dollars.*	Total. *Dollars.*
1821,.....	.....	84,890	.....	7,980,000	8,064,890
1822,.....	.....	411,444	.....	2,958,402	3,369,846
1823,.....	.....	230,771	.....	4,867,125	5,097,896
1824,.....	11,941	319,451	34,954	8,013,489	8,379,835
1825,.....	151,020	368,827	378,257	5,252,661	6,150,765
1826,.....	116,194	462,087	462,546	5,740,129	6,880,956
1827,.....	91,049	.....	1,019,399	6,618,077	8,151,143
1828,.....	69,650	465,063	738,570	6,216,458	7,489,741
1829,.....	110,638	837,107	706,428	5,749,839	7,403,612
1830,.....	115,267	1,049,343	705,879	6,285,475	8,155,964
1831,.....	166,191	686,283	765,838	5,687,633	7,345,945
1832,.....	102,021	736,711	614,665	4,454,107	5,907,504
1833,.....	48,267	297,840	563,585	6,160,676	7,070,368
1834,.....	293,665	514,417	3,472,507	13,631,043	17,911,632
1835,.....	655,457	765,283	1,669,739	10,040,968	13,131,447
1836,.....	1,913,137	318,350	5,318,725	5,850,669	13,400,881
1837,.....	536,549	594,291	1,895,265	7,490,309	10,516,414
1838,.....	230,694	392,843	11,444,189	5,679,390	17,747,116
1839,.....	86,540	149,680	1,078,040	4,280,916	5,595,176
1840,.....	273,127	469,434	3,812,030	5,328,222	8,882,813
1841,.....	137,749	274,225	1,131,700	3,444,959	4,988,633
1842,.....	56,365	39,458	700,929	3,290,264	4,087,016
1843,.....	212,096	243,993	17,254,470	6,032,075	23,742,634

EXPORTED.

Years ending Sept. 30.	Bullion. Gold. *Dollars.*	Bullion. Silver. *Dollars.*	Specie. Gold. *Dollars.*	Specie. Silver. *Dollars.*	Total. *Dollars.*	Domestic Coin. *Dollars.*	Total. *Dollars.*
1821,.....	90	.....	.....	10,477,969	10,478,059	.....	.....
1822,.....	.....	28,248	.....	10,781,932	10,810,180	.....	.....
1823,.....	.....	1,800	.....	6,371,187	6,372,987	.....	.....
1824,.....	.....	.....	.....	7,014,552	7,014,552	.....	.....
1825, ...	.....	10,849	315,672	8,470,534	8,797,055	.....	.....
1826,.....	15,638	25,090	434,555	3,623,385	4,098,678	605,558	4,704,236
1827,.....	8,611	3,236	820,304	6,139,155	6,971,306	1,043,574	8,014,880
1828,.....	13,663	42,588	928,384	6,565,804	7,550,439	693,037	8,243,476
1829,.....	25,270	213,821	935,102	3,136,941	4,311,134	612,886	4,924,020
1830,.....	10,637	24,154	474,876	731,055	1,241,622	937,151	2,178,773
1831,.....	21,690	203,572	899,365	5,831,830	6,956,457	2,058,474	9,014,931
1832,.....	7,615	255,517	630,850	3,351,417	4,245,399	1,410,941	5,656,340
1833,.....	26,773	.....	495,890	1,722,196	2,244,859	366,842	3,611,701
1834,.....	12,681	2,591	276,999	1,383,987	1,676,258	400,500	2,076,758
1835,.....	.....	.....	625,679	5,122,495	5,748,174	729,601	6,477,775
1836,.....	25,777	52,695	275,940	3,624,186	3,978,598	345,738	4,324,336
1837,.....	101,563	5,600	1,828,653	2,756,914	4,702,730	1,283,519	5,986,249
1838,.....	.....	2,500	740,263	2,292,342	3,035,105	472,941	3,508,046
1839,.....	77,660	8,040	2,814,650	3,968,035	6,860,385	1,908,358	8,768,743
1840,.....	.....	47,689	1,468,300	4,665,952	6,181,941	2,235,073	8,417,014
1841,.....	166,086	63,011	677,297	6,381,452	7,287,846	2,746,486	10,034,332
1842,.....	.....	.....	1,134,002	2,508,783	3,642,785	1,170,754	4,813,539
1843,.....	450	.....	504,666	2,613,283	3,118,399	234,403	3,352,802

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *Register's Office, March* 13, 1844.

T. L. SMITH, *Register.*

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

BANKRUPTCY—PROOF OF DEBT.

In the matter of Ephraim Brown, a bankrupt; Henry Wisner, assignee, objecting to the proof of debt of William Courtis and Co. The proof debt filed in this case was on two checks, made upon the common printed blanks, one of which was as follows:—

GRANITE BANK.

$703 50. BOSTON, *April* 18, 1841.

Pay to W. Courtis and Co., 18th May, or Bearer, seven hundred and three dollars and fifty cents. EPHRAIM BROWN,

To the Cashier. by J. W. Green.

The other check was made in the same manner, drawn the same day, for the sum of $726 52, and payable 10th June.

The assignee objected (1.) that these instruments were inland bills of exchange, and that the bankrupt was entitled, as drawer, to all the rights of drawers of such bills. (2.) That whether they were checks or bills, there was not sufficient demand and notice of the dishonor to charge the drawer. It appeared that, on the day when the checks were drawn, Brown had the sum of $30 89, and on the 18th of May the sum of $6 11, and on the 10th of June the sum of $20 72, in the Granite Bank. Each check was presented at the counter of the bank on the day on which it was expressed to be payable, and was refused payment for want of funds; but neither of the checks were treated by the holder as if entitled to days of grace, and no notice of the dishonor was given to the drawer. The case was argued at a former day on the above questions, certified to this court from the District court.

Judge Story.—The question in this case is of very great importance to the commercial community in a practical view. It is whether, as contended by the counsel for the assignee, a check on a bank, payable on a future day, is in fact an inland bill of exchange. In my judgment it is not. The distinguishing characteristics of checks, as contradistinguished from bills of exchange, are, (as it seems to me,) that they are always drawn on a bank or banker, that they are payable immediately on presentment, without the allowance of any days of grace, and that they are never presentable for mere acceptance, but only for payment. A check is not less a check, because drawn payable on a future day. The Massachusetts statute (Revised Statutes, title 12, ch. 33, sec. 5, 6) allows days of grace upon all bills of exchange payable at sight, or at a future day certain, and on all promissory negotiable notes, orders, or drafts, payable at a future day certain. But it makes no mention of checks; they are left to the known rules, practices, and usages of banks, which are, to pay on presentment; and if the check is payable on a particular day, or on demand, no days of grace are allowed. In the present case, the parties used the common form of a bank check, and so, in effect, agreed that the instruments should be treated, to all intents and purposes, as a check, with all the attributes and incidents thereof.

The learned judge entered upon an elaborate review of the authorities on the subject of checks and bills, and, in the course of his comment upon a case decided by Mr. Justice Cowen, of New York, made the following remarks: "I am aware that Mr. Justice Cowen, in his elaborate opinion in Homer *v.* Anderson, (21 Wendell's Reports, 372,) has endeavored to support the opinion that a check is to be deemed, to all essential purposes, a bill of exchange, and that, therefore, all the rules applicable to the latter are of equal force in relation to the former. Notwithstanding the array of authorities brought

forward by him, my own judgment is that they wholly fail of the purpose. It appears to me to be a struggle, on the part of the learned judge, to subject all the doctrines applicable to all negotiable instruments to some common and uniform standard. I hope and trust that such an effort will never prevail. In my judgment, it is far better that the doctrines of commercial jurisprudence should, from time to time, adapt themselves to the common usages and practices and understanding of merchants, and vary with the varying courses of business, so as at once to subserve public convenience, and to mould themselves into the common habits of social life, than to assume any artificial forms, or to regulate, by any inflexible standard, the whole operations of trade and commerce. As new instruments arise in the course of business, they should be construed so as to meet and accomplish the very purposes of the parties for which they were designed, and not to defeat them. Checks are as well known now as bills of exchange, as a class of distinct instruments in commercial negotiations; and he who seeks to make them identical, in all respects, with bills of exchange, may unintentionally be introducing an anomaly, instead of suppressing one."

The judge directed a certificate to the District court, to the effect that the checks described are not bills of exchange, and required no notice of their dishonor, and that the proof of debt ought not to be expunged.

FREIGHT—STOWAGE OF GOODS.

In the United States District Court, New York, January 19, 1843, Jonathan Crocket, Jr. *vs.* John H. Brower. This was a suit by the master against the consignee for freight of goods from New Orleans to New York. The usual bills of lading were signed for the goods, which were found to be damaged on the arrival here.

There were two surveys, one on the part of the master, by the port-wardens, which certified that the goods were well stowed, and injured by the perils of the sea; the other on the part of the consignee, by the marine surveyors appointed by the Chamber of Commerce and Board of Underwriters, which certified that the goods were badly and improperly stowed.

The certificates of surveyors were objected to as evidence, and the Court decided they were not evidence in themselves; that the state of the cargo must be proved, like other facts; by witnesses; and that the persons making the survey would be entitled to such weight as their knowledge, character, and experience deserved, and no more.

Messrs. Moffat and Kittle, two of the port-wardens, testified they made a survey of the whiskey in question, and found it well stowed, so far as they examined; that they saw no sugar stowed on the whiskey. Hogsheads of sugar on barrels of whiskey would be bad stowage.

Captains Drinkwater and Hopkins, shipmasters, testified that they would stow sugar on whiskey; considered it good stowage. Barrels of whiskey are stronger than hogsheads of sugar.

Messrs. Candler and Tinkham, two of the marine surveyors, testified that they made a survey of the whiskey, and the same was very badly stowed. Hogsheads of sugar were stowed on barrels of whiskey, without being dunnaged and bedded; the barrels were pressed down or crushed, so that the liquor ran out. Hogsheads on barrels are bad stowage.

Messrs. Spear, Kennedy, and Bergeny, coopers, testified that they coopered twenty-nine casks, which were in very bad order. The bilges were flattened from bad stowage, so as to leak; they were well made casks; appeared to have been stowed under sugar.

Mr. Dick, a carman, saw the whiskey in the vessel and on the dock; sugar, lard, and lead were stowed atop of it; the bilges were very much flattened. The barrels had no dunnage under them at all.

Mr. Dunlap, a clerk of consignee, testified the casks were so much flattened that you could run your hand under the quarter hoops. The whiskey which the coopers worked at was the lot in question. The whiskey was stowed with heavy weight on it.

Mr. Waring, inspector of the Atlantic Company, Mr. Ricketson, inspector of the Sun Company, and Mr. Thompson, inspector of the Alliance, testified that they had thirty, thirty-five, and forty years' experience; such stowage is decidedly bad. Hogsheads on barrels, and barrels on the bottom, without beds and dunnage, is very bad stowage.

The Court: The point submitted by the parties is, whether the goods were properly stowed. It appears to the Court that the goods were negligently and insufficiently stowed in the vessel, and that the libellant sustained damage in the goods by bad stowage, and is not, accordingly, entitled to recover freight.

The libel must be dismissed with costs.

WHALING VOYAGE—SEAMEN'S WAGES.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Mass., Judge Wilde, presiding, Bishop *vs.* Shepard.

This action was founded upon the 11th section of the act of 1784, commonly called the old habeas corpus act. It was brought by a father to recover damages for the loss of the services of his son, who, in 1832, went on a whaling voyage in the defendant's ship, without his father's consent, having first produced to the defendant a document purporting to contain such consent. Evidence was introduced tending to show that this document was forged. Judge Wilde instructed the jury that, if they deemed the plaintiff's case sustained by the evidence, they would give him, as damages, the value of his son's services from the time he entered the defendant's service till he became of age, (about two years and a half,) with interest from the date of the writ.

The jury found for the plaintiff, and assessed his damages at $466.

INSURANCE—VERBAL EVIDENCE INADMISSIBLE.

It was recently decided by the Court of Errors of New York, in the case of Alison *vs.* Troy Insurance Company, that verbal evidence of what passed between the insured and the underwriters, at and previous to the delivery of the policy, is not admissible with a view to vary the terms of insurance. Everything should be stated in the policy, to make it binding. It appears that Alison, on receiving his policy, promised verbally that he would discontinue the use of a certain fire-place, and use a stove in the place thereof, which he omitted to do; and the consequence was, the building was burnt up. The court were of the opinion that the omission of the plaintiff constituted no defence of the insurance company, as they should have had his promise expressed in the policy.

PROMISSORY NOTES—PLEA OF INFANCY.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, December, 1843, an action was brought by Josiah F. Leach *vs.* N. W. C. Jameson, to receive the amount of a promissory note signed by the defendant, and of which the plaintiff was endorsee.

It appeared in evidence that the defendant, in February, 1838, about commencing business in a new firm, gave to John Dallinger, Jr., with whom he had formerly been connected, a note for $3,000, payable on demand, with interest, in payment of stock purchased of the old concern. The note was soon after endorsed, without recourse, by Dallinger, to his father, who subsequently endorsed it to the plaintiff.

The defendant pleaded infancy. It was proved that he was not of age until the July following the date of note. But it was proved, on the part of the plaintiff, that the defendant, at different times after he came of age, had distinctly ratified the original promise, by re-promises to Dallinger, who acted as agent for the holder of the note, in demanding its payment.

Verdict for the plaintiff, the amount of the note and interest.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

COLONIAL TARIFF OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

The following colonial tariff of Newfoundland went into operation July 5, 1843:—

Articles.	Duties.
Wines, viz: all wines in bottles,.....per gallon	$0 60
" all other wines,..... "	36
For every gallon of brandy, Geneva, and cordials, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength, or for any greater or less quantity than a gallon,.....per gallon	60
For every gallon of rum and whiskey, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength, or for any greater or less quantity than a gallon,.....per gallon	30
For every barrel of apples,.....	36
For every 112 lbs. of meat, salted or cured,.....	36
For every 112 lbs. of bread or biscuit,.....	6
For every 112 lbs. of butter,.....	48
For every ton of coals,.....	24
For every barrel of flour, not exceeding in weight 196 lbs.,.....	36
For every barrel of oatmeal, not exceeding in weight 200 lbs.,.....	12
For every gallon of molasses,.....	3
Salt,.....	free.
Implements and materials fit and necessary for the fisheries—that is to say, lines, twines, hooks, nets, and seines,.....	free.
Coin and bullion,.....	free.
Horses, mares, and geldings,.....	free.
Neat cattle and calves,.....	free.
Sheep and hogs,.....	free.
Corn and grain unground, and all seeds,.....	free.
Potatoes, and all other vegetables,.....	free.
Manures of all kinds,.....	free.
Printed books, pamphlets, maps, and charts,.....	free.
For every thousand feet of lumber, one inch thick,.....	60
For every ton of timber, and for every ton of balk, of any kind, including scantling,.....	36
For every thousand of shingles,.....	24
For every pound of tea,.....	6
For every 112 lbs. of refined sugar,.....	1 20
Unrefined or clayed sugar,.....	free.
For every thousand of cigars,.....	2 40
For every pound of manufactured, and for every pound of leaf tobacco,.....	4
For every 112 lbs. of tobacco stems,.....	48
Coffee,.....	free.
Ale, porter, beer, cider, and perry—for every £100 of the true value thereof,.	48 00
Household furniture, manufactured from wood—for every £100 of the true value thereof,.....	48 00
Goods, wares, and merchandise, not otherwise enumerated, described, or charged with duty in this act, and not herein declared to be duty free—for every £100 of the true value thereof,.....	24 00

MERCHANDISE ADMITTED AT GONAIVES, ST. DOMINGO, DUTY FREE.

The following articles are free of duty at this port since January 1, 1844:—

Fish, of all descriptions; salt pork and beef, in bbls.; nails, boards and planks, scantling, shingles, empty hogsheads, and nest casks; box and hogshead shooks, hoops, coffee-bags, ropes, engines, and pieces of machinery for sugar estates; sugar-kettles, iron and copper tanks, sugar-pans, and bricks.

All vessels intending to discharge and load entirely at this port, must consequently bring no other articles but those enumerated above.

GRAINS IMPORTED INTO RUSSIA FREE.

Information has been received at the department of state at Washington, and officially published, that, "by an ukase of the 6th of November, 1843, His Majesty, the emperor of all the Russias, taking into consideration the badness of the harvests in the government of Esthonias this year, has deigned to authorize the importation, free from duty, of the foreign grains hereinafter described, until the 1st of July, 1844, viz: Rye, wheat, oats, barley, and buckwheat, in grain, as well as in flour and paste; but, at the same time, the transportation of these said sorts of grains, from the said ports to other Russian ports, shall be prohibited during all the season of navigation of 1844. The transportation by land of the grains of Esthonias to the government of St. Petersburg, shall be also prohibited in the same manner as in 1836."

CUSTOMS AT THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

By an order in Council, dated 2d October last, it is ordered that, upon the following articles, imported into the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, there shall be levied, upon the entry thereof for consumption, the following customs-duties:—

Meat—Salted or cured, of all sorts, not being the production or manufacture of the United Kingdom, 3*s.* per cwt. Salted or cured, of all sorts, being the production or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or of any British possession, 1*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.

Oil—Train and blubber, the produce of fish, or creatures living in the sea, of foreign fishing, £3 per tun, imperial measure. Spermaceti, of foreign fishing, £7 10*s.* per tun, imperial measure.

Fish—Dried or salted, and fins and skins, the produce of creatures living in the sea, of foreign fishing or taking, for every £100 of the value thereof, £12.

RAILROAD AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

PHILADELPHIA, WILMINGTON, AND BALTIMORE RAILROAD.

We are indebted to the politeness of M. Brooke Buckley, Esq., the president of the Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad Company, for their two last annual reports, made January 9th, 1843, and January 8th, 1844. From these reports, it appears that the whole amount of receipts for the year ending 21st of December, 1842, were $469,858 04. The whole expenses for the year ending the same day, were $239,965 07. The revenue for 1842 was $134,010 65 less than in 1841, and the expenses were less by $102,979 70. The whole receipts for the year ending 31st December, 1843, were $430,434 47; while the current expenses for the same period were $230,384 86. It appears, by the last report, that the funded debt of the company amounted to $2,972,887 16. The president alludes to the adverse circumstances of the company during the past year; but hopes that, from the favorable prospects of the country, the period is approaching when it will receive such substantial assurance of prosperity as will confirm the anticipations of the most sanguine. Of the probability of this, however, no speculations are offered. It was stated in an article on the Progress of the Doctrine of Low Fares, in the Merchants' Magazine, for October, that the charge from Philadelphia to Baltimore, $4, and Baltimore to Washington, $2 50, or $10 50 from New York to Washington, was, in these days, on such a route, entirely too high. This statement gave offence to the Philadelphia and Baltimore company, which we regret, as we were actuated only by a desire to promote the interests equally of the company and the public; and we still believe that a greatly reduced fare would materially increase the revenue

of the road; and we are sustained in this opinion by the results which have been realized by the railroad companies of Massachusetts. As pertinent to the subject, we quote a passage from a little work just published in Boston, entitled "Two Months Abroad; or, A Trip to England, France, Baden, Prussia, and Belgium, in August and September, 1843, by a Railroad Director of Massachusetts." The author is E. H. Derby, Esq., a director of the Western railroad, and a large stockholder. He says:—

"Extremes are ever to be avoided. The opinion of the author has uniformly, for the last seven years, been in favor of an average rate of two cents per (passenger a) mile, as most productive, and is founded upon results derived from close observation and long experience. He has not advocated a lower rate except to meet direct or indirect competition. During the past year, the Western railroad has increased its through passengers 60 per cent, by reducing its rate from two and a half to two cents per mile; and the Newton train has nearly trebled its numbers by a still larger reduction. The printed report of the Portland, Saco, and Portsmouth railroad, under date of December 12th, 1843, confirms this opinion; showing, as it does, that this railroad has earned 3 per cent nett during the six months ending November 30th last, derived principally from passengers carried at one cent per mile, against a most formidable steamboat opposition; and also showing that, during the previous six months, while engrossing the whole travel between Boston and Maine, at four cents per (passenger a) mile, it earned but one-half of 1 per cent.

"Making due allowance for the season, the result, drawn from rates far below those advocated by the author, is irresistible evidence in favor of the moderate fare. The price should be such as to move the masses, and move them often—to draw to the great cities not merely the trader, but his family and customers, as is done by the steamers on the North river. In this country, the masses decide dividends as well as elections."

RAILROADS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

THE STATE OF THE RAILROADS IN MASSACHUSETTS IN THE YEAR 1843.

Corporate Names.	Length in miles.	Cost of roads and appurtenances.	Cost per mile.	Expenditure during the year.	Receipts during the year.	Excess of receipts and expenditures.
Western,.....	156	$7,570,000	$48,525	$573,883	$303,972	$269,909
Boston and Worcester,....	44	2,836,169	64,458	404,141	206,641	197,500
Boston and Providence,..	41	1,914,474	46,694	233,388	125,374	208,014
Boston and Lowell,.....	26	1,863,746	71,682	277,315	109,367	167,948
Norwich and Worcester,.	20	650,421	32,521	54,112	45,821	8,291
Nashua and Lowell,.....	9	215,930	23,992	50,445	23,995	26,450
Eastern,.....	39	2,388,631	61,246	279,562	104,640	174,922
Boston and Maine,.....	20	534,612	26,730	64,998	39,700	25,298
N. Bedford and Taunton,.	20	428,543	21,427	50,672	22,281	27,391
Taunton Branch,.....	11	250,000	22,727	74,251	51,396	22,855
Berkshire,.....	21	250,000	.....	.....	leased at	17,500
Charlestown Branch,.....	7	250,000	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total number of miles ran in 1843,.....				1,379,676		

The above roads are all situated within the territory of Massachusetts, except about 38 miles of the Western road; but, as that portion of the Western road was built principally with Massachusetts capital, and is in the hands of the Massachusetts corporation, which has the pre-emptive right of purchase, we have included it in the Massachusetts roads. The Berkshire road was built, in part, by contract, and has been leased to the Housatonic company. The Charlestown Branch corporation have entered into a contract with the Fitchburg corporation, which is now constructing a railroad to Fitchburg. A charter is about being granted to extend this road to Brattleborough, Vt., and thence through that state to Lake Champlain.

Two bills are before the legislature of Massachusetts for the incorporation of railroad companies. The route of one is from Athol, through Greenfield, to Brattleborough.

The effect of so many avenues to Boston, which may be passed with such rapidity, has shown itself in the growth of that city within a few years past, and the increase of her trade.

ATLANTIC STEAM NAVIGATION, BETWEEN NEW YORK AND LIVERPOOL, FOR 1844.

The Great Britain, of 3,500 tons, is to be placed on the line between Liverpool and New York, in addition to the Great Western, of 1,700 tons. The arrangement for their departure from the two places, for the coming season, is as follows:—

From Liverpool.	From New York.
Great Western,....Saturday, 27th April.	Great Western,....Thursday, 23d May.
Great Britain,.....Saturday, 25th May.	Great Britain,.....Thursday, 20th June.
Great Western,....Saturday, 15th June.	Great Western,....Thursday, 11th July.
Great Britain,.....Saturday, 13th July.	Great Britain,.....Thursday, 8th August.
Great Western,....Saturday, 3d August.	Great Western,....Thursday, 29th August.
Great Britain,.....Saturday, 31st August.	Great Britain,.....Thursday, 26th Sept'r.
Great Western,....Saturday, 21st Sept'mb'r.	Great Western,....Thursday, 17th October.
Great Britain,.....Saturday, 19th October.	Great Britain,.....Thursday, 14th Nov'r.
Great Western,....Saturday, 9th November.	Great Western,....Thursday, 5th Dec'r.

The fare by both ships, it is announced, will be at reduced rates.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE MERCHANT.

BY CORNELIUS MATHEWS.

Who gathers income in the narrow street,
Or, climbing, reaps it from the roughening sea,
His anchor Truth should fix—should fill his flowing sheet;
His weapon, helm, and staff, the truth should be.
Wrought out with lies each rafter of thine house,
Black with the falsehood every thread thou wearest—
A subtle ruin, sudden overthrow,
For all thy household's fortune thou preparest.

Undimmed, the man should through the trader shine,
And show the soul unbabled by his craft;
Slight duties may not lessen, but adorn
The cedar's berries round the cedar's shaft.
The pettiest act will lift the doer up,
The mightiest cast him swift and headlong down;
If one forget the spirit of his deed,
The other wears it as a living crown.

A grace, be sure, in all true duty dwells;
Humble or high, you always know it thus—
For, beautiful in act, the foregone thought
Confirms its truth, though seeming ominous.
Pure hands, and just, may therefore well be laid
On duties daily as the air we breathe;
And Heaven, amid the thorns of harshest trade,
The laurel of its gentlest love may wreathe.

COINAGE OF COPPER IN CHINA.

It is stated in the Hong-Kong Gazette, of July 13th, 1843, that permission is given, at the request of the proper officer, to cast copper cash in Shan-se province. It appears that none has been made for ten years past, and that now the present value of copper cash is 1,440 to 1,450 for a tael of silver. In old times, two taels and one mace of silver was worth no more. At the present rate, it is held fit to issue a fresh supply of cash. We learn there are six furnaces at Shan-se mint—each will furnish annually 17,400 *teaou tseen*, or 17,400,000 cash. It is intended to employ at present only four for one year. The composition of the cash is stated to be a mixture of copper, zinc, and lead.

A BENEVOLENT QUAKER MERCHANT.

The following just eulogy on the Society of Friends has met our eye in a small work by Mr. Goyder, entitled "Acquisitiveness: its Uses and Abuses:"—

"If I wished to point to a model where wealth seems to have been accumulated for the sole purpose of doing good, I would hold up to admiration the people called Quakers. They are wealthy to a man; and where, throughout Christendom, in its varied ramifications, is there a body of people who have done so much good, and with so much disinterestedness? not choosing their own connection as the sole recipients of their bounty, but extending it to every shade of religious creed. In the proper and legitimate uses of wealth, I present this people as a model worthy of general imitation. The late venerated Richard Reynolds, of Bristol, who had amassed a princely fortune in the iron trade, looked upon himself merely as the steward of the Almighty. His entire income, after deducting the moderate expenses of his family, was devoted to benevolence; and he thought his round of duty still incomplete, unless he devoted his time likewise. He deprived himself of slumber to watch beside the bed of sickness and pain, and to administer consolation to the heart bruised with affliction. On one occasion, he wrote to a friend in London, requesting to know what object of charity remained, stating that he had not spent the whole of his income. His friend informed him of a number of persons confined in prison for small debts. He paid the whole, and swept the miserable mansion of its distressed tenants. Most of his donations were enclosed in blank covers, bearing the modest signature of 'A Friend.' A lady once applied to him in behalf of an orphan, saying, 'When he is old enough, I will teach him to name and thank his benefactor.' 'Nay,' replied the good man, 'thou art wrong. We do not thank the clouds for rain. Teach him to look higher, and to thank Him who giveth both the clouds and the rain. My talent is the meanest of all talents—a little sordid dust; but as the man in the parable was accountable for his one talent, so am I accountable to the great Lord of all.'"

COMMERCIAL PROSPERITY OF SINGAPORE.

The Friend of India, of the 27th July, 1843, has the following remarks relative to the prosperity of the settlement of Singapore:—

"It is impossible to contemplate the state of prosperity which the colony has now reached, without a strong feeling of exultation. Here is a maritime entrepot, in one of the most advantageous commercial positions in the world, to which, during the past year, 952 square-rigged vessels resorted, and 2,824 native vessels, from the various ports and islands in the Archipelago. The burden of these vessels was 363,600 tons, and the value of the goods they imported and exported amounted to five crores of rupees. This settlement is maintained at an expense not exceeding £50,000 a year, and this sum is raised on the island itself. All the advantages which it confers, directly and collaterally, on British commerce in the Eastern seas, are gained without one farthing of expense to the mother country. We question whether the records of the colonial office could show us any crown colony, of equal importance and value, which is managed with the same economy, or which makes no annual demand on the British exchequer. Singapore stands almost alone in the British colonial establishments as a self-supporting colony."

WOODEN WARE IMPORTED TO ENGLAND.

The New York Express says, that the packet ships are carrying out wooden ware to London. The London and Liverpool packets continue to go out full—new articles all the while coming into the market, which are taken out as a speculation, and which generally are successful. The last "new notions" taken out, are wooden clothes pins, wooden bowls, spoons, churns, rocking chairs, &c., of which several tons measurement were on board the Victoria for London. Her freight list amounted to about $10,000.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

WHALE FISHERY OF THE UNITED STATES.

Annexed are the arrivals and imports of whale and sperm oil into the United States for 1843, and the six preceding years :—

Ports.	Ships and Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Bbls. Whale.	Bbls. Sperm.
Nantucket,	18	2	4	30,480	1,545
New Bedford,	53	4	0	61,557	4,199
Fairhaven,	14	0	0	14,230	11,900
Westport,	4	0	0	2,400	35
Wareham,	0	2	0	1,093	00,000
Mattapoisett,	3	1	0	1,700	320
Sippican,	2	2	0	1,220	1,540
Edgartown,	3	1	0	6,460	110
Holmes' Hole,	2	0	0	1,800	1,700
Provincetown,	2	5	5	3,900	820
Boston,	3	3	2	2,165	1,51[illegible]
Falmouth,	4	0	0	5,700	82[illegible]
Fall River,	2	1	0	780	4,015
Plymouth,	0	2	2	390	55
Somerset,	2	0	0	442	367
Salem,	2	1	0	920	1,800
New London,	20	0	0	4,250	37,750
Stonington,	7	0	0	2,415	12,345
Mystic,	3	0	0	360	4,560
Sag Harbor,	24	1	0	4,220	47,980
Greenport,	4	0	0	964	7,100
New Suffolk,	1	0	0	200	2,000
Bridgeport,	1	0	0	300	2,100
Bristol,	1	1	0	620	0,000
Warren,	11	0	0	7,740	9,910
Providence,	1	0	0	190	2,410
Newport,	1	1	0	2,050	50
Bath, Me.,	0	1	0	300	0,000
New York,	3	0	0	1,520	6,100
Cold Spring,	2	0	0	150	3,320
Poughkeepsie,	1	0	0	350	2,500
Per merchantmen, from whalers,	...	...	...	6,278	0,000
Total in 1843,	194	28	13	167,144	205,861

It will be seen that, for the year 1843, we have given a detailed account of the number of ships, barques, brigs, &c., arrived at each port, and the quantity of oil imported into the same.

Imports of Sperm and Whale Oil into the United States, from 1838 *to* 1843, *inclusive.*

Years.	Sperm. Bbls.	Whale. Bbls.	Years.	Sperm. Bbls.	Whale. Bbls.
1838,	132,356	226,552	1841,	159,304	207,348
1839,	142,336	229,783	1842,	165,637	161,041
1840,	157,791	207,908	1843,	166,985	205,861

Exports of Sperm Oil, Whale and other Fish Oils, (in bbls.,) and Whalebone, (in lbs.,) from the United States, from October 1, 1837, *to June* 30, 1843, *inclusive.*

Years.	Sperm. Bbls.	Whale. Bbls.	Bone. Lbs.	Years.	Sperm. Bbls.	Whale. Bbls.	Bone. Lbs.
1837,	5,225	153,154	1,634,570	1841,	9,135	124,118	918,280
1838,	2,731	47,076	1,445,098	1842,			
1839,	13,797	143,519	1,892,259	to July,	12,127	79,907	898,773
1840,	11,091	130,124	1,271,363	1843,			

Exports and Value of Spermaceti Candles from the United States, during the nine months ending June 30, 1843.

Quantity,	lbs.	964,210
Value,	dollars	234,049

WHALE FISHERY OF SAG HARBOR.

Since the above tables were prepared, and in type, we have received from our worthy friend, Luther D. Cook, Esq., a gentleman extensively engaged in the whale fishery at Sag Harbor, as owner and managing agent, full and complete tables of that branch of commerce at Sag Harbor, for the year 1843. If some managing agent or owner, in the different districts engaged in this important branch of productive commerce, would send us similar tables annually, we should be able to furnish authentic statements of the entire business in the United States; which would, of course, exhibit a comparative view of the movement in the different districts.

List of Arrivals of Whaling Vessels, with the amount of the Produce of the Fishery, within the District of Sag Harbor, (L. I.,) New York, during the year 1843.

Time of arrival. 1843.	Names of Vessels.	Tons.	Time absent. Months.	Time absent. Days.	Sp. Oil. Bbls.	Wh. oil. Bbls.	Whalebone. Lbs.
March 16,.	Ship Columbia,	285	20	18	398	2,263	23,542
April 3,.	" Thames,	414	20	28	76	3,102	28,500
" 6,.	Brig Wickford,	115	15	15	40	.....	.....
" 9,.	Bark Concordia,	265	28	12	261	997	8,905
" 22,.	Ship Washington,	340	22	20	15	2,270	19,004
" 25,.	Bark Noble,	274	21	6	118	2,048	18,889
May 7,.	Ship Neptune,	338	23	5	40	2,691	27,900
" 7,.	" Bayard,	339	19	11	214	1,798	11,797
" 7,.	" Triad,	336	22	...	109	2,027	11,190
" 10,.	" Henry,	333	22	24	100	2,264	20,135
" 10,.	" Ann,	299	21	21	56	2,359	19,593
" 22,.	" Washington,	236	19	22	...	1,665	110,000
" 24,.	" D. Webster,	397	22	16	...	3,175	25,500
June 10,.	Bark Superior,	275	11	11	13	881	7,456
" 10,.	Ship France,	411	20	9	215	2,384	17,539
" 16,.	" Delta,	314	18	11	297	1,264	9,794
" 28,.	Bark Cadmus,	307	20	8	163	2,085	11,670
" 30,.	" Nimrod,	280	10	1	100	1,030	7,272
July 5,.	" Barbara,	260	13	6	442	897	7,874
" 14,.	" Marcus,	283	19	26	563	647	3,090
" 14,.	Ship Hamilton 2d,	455	30	23	323	3,306	37,159
Aug. 5,.	Bark Gem,	326	11	23	...	2,182	16,797
" 5,.	Ship Hannibal,	311	12	2	49	910	5,000
" 12,.	" Huron,	290	11	23	79	1,102	7,925
" 13,.	" Crescent,	340	22	16	280	2,253	16,521*
" 24,.	Bark American,	283	13	5	...	1,358	11,502
" 25,.	" Camillus,	345	20	15	291	1,611	7,490
" 25,.	" Romulus,	233	14	4	126	713	5,536
Oct. 21,.	Ship Fanny,	391	28	30	251	2,734	21,200†
" 21,.	" Panama,	465	27	14	113	3,455	30,561
" 21,.	" Silas Richards,	454	...	...	230	3,175	26,300
Total,		9,994	...	...	4,959	58,050	476,644
Sent home from Acasta ex Camillus,							10,500
"	Thomas Dickason ex Silas Richards,						25,200
Total,							512,344

* Including 1,300 whale, sold at Rio.

† Including oil sent home and abroad.

List of Vessels engaged in the Whale Fishery, sailed from the District of Sag Harbor, N. Y., during the year 1843.

Time of sailing.	Vessel's name.	Tons.	Time of sailing.	Vessel's name.	Tons.
March 25,.	Bark Caroline,.....	252	Aug. 26,.	Bark Barbara,.....	260
April 21,.	Ship Citizen,.....	464	" 28,.	Ship Hamilton 2d,....	455
June 10,.	" Neptune,.....	338	" 30,.	" Hannibal,.....	311
" 15,.	Bark Sarah & Esther,	157	" 31,.	Bark Marcus,.....	283
" 19,.	Ship Washington,....	340	" 31,.	Ship Ontario 2d,.....	489
" 20,.	Bark Columbia,.....	285	Sept. 16,.	" Alexander,.....	370
" 29,.	" Concordia,.....	265	" 16,.	Bark Gem,.....	326
July 5,.	Ship Henry,.....	333	" 18,.	" American,.....	283
" 7,.	" Ann,.....	299	" 21,.	Ship Huron,.....	290
" 7,.	" Thames,.....	414	" 27,.	Bark Bayard,.....	339
" 19,.	" Washington,....	236	" 28,.	" Romulus,.....	233
" 20,.	Bark Noble,.....	274	Oct. 4,.	Ship William Tell,...	370
" 21,.	Ship France,.....	411	" 11,.	" Crescent,.....	340
" 24,.	Bark Superior,.....	275	" 18,.	" Helen,.....	424
Aug. 11,.	Ship Triad,.....	336	" 25,.	" Illinois,.....	413
" 17,.	" Daniel Webster,	397	" 30,.	" Josephine,.....	397
" 17,.	" Delta,.....	314	Nov. 8,.	" Manhattan,.....	440
" 24,.	" Cadmus,.....	307	Dec. 4,.	" Fanny,.....	391
" 26,.	Bark Nimrod,.....	280			

List of Vessels engaged in the Whale Fishery, sailed from the District of Sag Harbor, which have not returned during the past year, and are now at sea, January 1st, 1844.

Time of sailing.	Vessel's name.	Tons.	Time of sailing.	Vessel's name.	Tons.
1841.			1842.		
July 12,.	Bark Franklin,.....	391	Aug. 29,.	Bark Acasta,.....	286
" 14,.	Ship Thos. Dickason,.	454	Sept. 2,.	Ship Henry Lee,.....	409
Sept. 26,.	" Arabella,.....	367	" 11,.	" Alciope,.....	378
Dec. 6,.	" Wiscasset,.....	380	" 27,.	" Timor,.....	289
1842.			Oct. 1,.	Bark Roanoke,.....	251
June 30,.	" Ontario 1st,.....	368	" 7,.	Ship John Jay,.....	494
July 1,.	" Hamilton 1st,....	322	" 7,.	" Tuscany,.....	299
" 30,.	" Phœnix,.....	314	" 11,.	" Hudson,.....	368
Aug. 2,.	" Portland,.....	292	Nov. 25,.	" Ann Mary Ann,.	380

	Tons.	Tons.
31 arrivals in the district in 1843,.....	9,994	
37 departures from the district in 1843,.....		12,391
3 vessels in port on 1st January, 1844,.....		1,264
17 vessels sailed from the district in 1841 and 1842, and now out,.....		6,042
Tot. tonnage in the district employed in the whale fishery on 1st Jan., 1844,		19,697

The progress made in the whale fishery, at the port of Sag Harbor, has been very rapid. From a statement furnished by Mr. Cook, it appears that in 1815 there were but 3 ships owned there; yet that, in 1838, the number had increased to 29; being an addition of 26 ships in 23 years. In 1837, there were 23 arrivals and 29 departures of whaling ships; the number of men and boys employed on board of which, exceeded 800. Mr. Cook states that, from 1804 to 1837, there were 198 arrivals of whaling vessels at Sag Harbor, producing 338,690 barrels of whale oil, 40,504 barrels of sperm, and 6,596,765 pounds of bone. The whole number of vessels engaged in the whaling business from this district, in 1843, was 52; the registered tonnage of which is 17,310, and the number of hands employed 1,217.

The prices of sperm and whale oil, and whalebone, from 1838 to 1842, inclusive, were as follows:—

Years.	Sperm oil.	Whale oil.	Whalebone.
1838,	75 a 97 c., av. 83 c.	30 a 37 c., av. 32 c.	17 a 21 c., av. 19½ c.
1839,	98 a 110 c., av. 103 c.	30 a 39 c., av. 34½ c.	17 a 19 c., av. 18¼ c.
1840,	90 a 106 c., av. 100 c.	30 a 32 c., av. 30½ c.	18 a 22 c., av. 19 c.
1841,	81 a 105 c., av. 94 c.	30 a 36 c., av. 31½ c.	18 a 23 c., av. 19¾ c.
1842,	64 a 92 c., av. 73 c.	32 a 38 c., av. 33½ c.	20 a 32 c., av. 23 c.
1843,	53 a 78 c., av. 63 c.	31 a 40 c., av. 34½ c.	26 a 50 c., av. 35¼ c.

Average prices for the six years above are—

Sperm oil,.....	86 cents.
Whale oil,.....	32 5-6 "
Whalebone,.....	22½ "

The New Bedford Shipping List gives the following estimate of ships and oil to come in 1844:—

	Sperm.	Whale.
There are 72 sperm whale ships which may arrive in 1844, (that will be 36 to 60 months out,) with 1,500 bbls. sperm and 150 whale each,	108,000	10,800
3 sperm whale ships that may arrive in 1844, (that shipped a part or the whole of their sperm oil home in 1843,) with 500 bbls. sperm and 500 bbls. whale each,.....	1,500	1,500
106 two-season right whalers that may arrive in 1844, with 1,950 whale and 250 sperm each,.....	26,500	206,700
10 one-season right whalers may arrive in 1844, with 100 sperm and 1,400 whale each,.....	1,000	14,000
40 Atlantic sperm whalers that may arrive in 1844, with 275 sperm and 25 whale each,.....	11,000	1,000
Estimated quantity to be sent home from outward-bound whalers, &c.,	3,500	.....
	148,500	234,000
Deduct for oil to be sold in South America,.....	.....	8,000
Total,.....bbls.	148,500	226,000

FRENCH AND SPANISH TRADE.

From the report of Senor Mateo Durou, recently removed from the Spanish consulate at Bordeaux, we gather the following statistics of the commerce between France and Spain, during the year 1842. It appears, from this report, that the imports into France from Spain, by sea, amounted to 29,740,267 francs; and by land, to 9,263,335 francs. Total import into France from Spain, during the year 1842, 39,003,602 francs. The articles of highest amount were—Wools, 8,743,364 f.; lead, 5,365,474 f.; oil, 4,827,828 f.; fruits of all sorts, 3,928,326 f.; cork-wood, 3,359,802 f., (estevas;) mats, 2,167,839 f., (esparto;) raw material of do., 1,474,969 f.; wines of all sorts, 809,166 f.; woollen-stuffs, 764,813. The French exports amounted to 34,161,622 f. by sea, and 37,330,699 f. by land. Total, 71,492,321 f.; showing a balance in favor of France, according to Senor Durou's report, of 32,488,719 f. The principal articles of French export to Spain were—Cotton-stuffs, 21,768,450 f.; woollen do., 11,177,387 f.; silk do., 8,190,636 f.; mules, 3,519,600 f.; linen-stuffs, 3,393,932 f.; merceries, 2,230,926 f.; machinery, 1,449,661 f.; furniture, 1,163,180 f.; paper, books and prints, &c., 1,290,582 f.; wood of all kinds, 1,035,392 f.; porcelain and glass, 946,726 f.; iron and steel, 850,842 f.; nails, 807,819 f. The total importations into France, from Spain, were—1839, 37,351,914 f.; 1840, 42,684,761 f.; 1841, 37,162,689 f.; 1842, 39,008,602. The total exportations from France into Spain, were—1839, 82,656,086 f.; 1840, 104,679,141 f.; 1841, 100,893,906; 1842, 71,492,321. In the same year there entered French ports, proceeding from Spain, 901 vessels, of which 492 were Spanish, 374 French, and 35 of other nations; and there left French ports, for Spain, 590 vessels, of which 446 were Spanish, 94 French, and 50 of other nations. How far this statement is to be relied upon, we are unable to say. The greater part of the French trade being a smuggling trade, must be taken into account; but Senor Durou may have had sources of information that enabled him to make a tolerably accurate calculation. It is published, at all events, with his signature as Spanish consul, and dated Bordeaux, December 30, 1843; and must, therefore, be viewed as official.

BRITISH EXCISE DUTIES.

By a parliamentary document of last session, a return was made of the quantities of, and of the amount of duties received on, the several articles liable to excise duty in the United Kingdom, during the years ending January, 1841, 1842, and 1843, distinguishing England, Ireland, and Scotland. Also, a return of the consumption of imported commodities, and of the receipt of customs duties thereon, within the United Kingdom, in the three years ending January, 1841, 1842, and 1843. It appears that the duty on sales by auctions, in the United Kingdom, in the year ending the 5th of January, 1841, was £320,062 13*s.* 6*d.*; of which £286,624 11*s.* 3*d.* was for England, £20,060 16*s.* 7*d.* in Scotland, and £13,377 5*s.* 8*d.* in Ireland. In 1842, the duty in the United Kingdom was £314,073 12*s.* 1*d.*, and in 1843, £297,146 4*s.* 9*d.*, on auction sales. On bricks, the duty in the last year was £400,086 3*s.* 5*d.*, and on glass, £766,540 14*s.* 3*d.*, in the United Kingdom; of which £703,194 6*s.* 2*d.* was paid in England on the last mentioned article. The duty on hops in England, in the year ending January, 1843, was £310,025 8*s.* 10*d.* On licenses in the United Kingdom last year, £1,014,941 1*s.*; the number being 592,342. The duty on malt in the last year, in England, was £4,176,742 19*s.* 10*d.*; on paper in England, £495,955 17*s.* 6*d.*; on post-horses in England, £156,397 8*s.* 9*d.*; on post-horse licenses, £3,849; on soap in England last year, £35,528 1*s.* 4*d.*; on spirits in England in the one year, £316,121 3*s.*; on sugar, £4,382 17*s.* 5*d.*; on vinegar in England, £27,106 9*s.* 10*d.* in one year, and £10,832 17*s.* on game certificates in Ireland. From the second return, it appears that the total amount of customs duties on imported articles in the year ending January, 1843, was £22,596,263 3*s.* 2*d.*

EXPORTS OF PORT WINE FROM OPORTO.

The official list of the exportation of wine from Oporto during the year 1843, shows that while the export to Great Britain alone has been 21,244 pipes, that to all other countries, including British colonies, has been only 5,156 pipes. In 1842, the exportation was 21,728; so that the fall off last year was 500 pipes. We must, however, look to the years 1839 and 1840 to see the real extent of the decline, the exportation to Great Britain being 26,159 pipes in the former year, and 25,678 in the latter. The decline in the wine trade is naturally accompanied by an increase of agricultural distress in Portugal; and accordingly the official statement of emigration, which is published in the government journal, gives some melancholy facts. In the first half of 1842, the number of poor persons emigrating to Brazil was 459 from Oporto, and 47 from Lisbon. In the last half, the number from Oporto was 775, and from Lisbon 218; and in the first half of 1843, the respective numbers were 715 and 291. The hardships which these poor people have to undergo, are of the most fearful description; and some of them, on their arrival in Brazil, are obliged to sell themselves for a term into slavery. And this distress is brought about solely by bad management, for Portugal is but thinly populated, and contains provinces which are yet but imperfectly developed, and which only require cultivation to become most abundantly productive.

DEBTS OF INSOLVENT HONG MERCHANTS.

By a late letter from Canton, we are informed that the Hong merchants have made arrangements to pay off all the old debts of the insolvent Hongs, which has been insisted on by the mandarin, preparatory to the commencement of the new system. Of the $1,560,000 required, it is believed that How-qua will pay $1,000,000; Poon-ke-qua, $130,000; Gow-qua and Sam-qua, each $100,000; Mow-qua, King-qua, and Sao-qua, $50,000 each; Foo-tae and Pun-hoy-qua, each $30,000; and Ming-qua, $20,000.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*A Geography of Pennsylvania; containing an Account of the History, Geographical Features, Soil, Climate, Geology, Botany, Zoology, Population, Education, Government, Finance, Productions, Trade, Railroads, Canals, &c., of the State. With a Separate Description of each County, and Questions for the convenience of Teachers. To which is appended a Traveller's Guide, or Table of Distances on the principal Railroad, Canal, and Stage Routes in the State.* By CHARLES B. TREGO, late Assistant Geologist, etc. Illustrated by a map of the state, and numerous engravings. 12mo., pp. 384. Philadelphia: Edward C. Biddle. 1844.

We are prepared, after a careful examination of this work, to say that it is, without exception, the best of its class that has fallen under our observation. It appears to have been prepared with great care, and its arrangement is concise and systematic. We scarcely know where to put our hand upon a work that furnishes so condensed a view of the past history, or so comprehensive a description of the present condition of a single state, as the one before us. The work is divided into two parts, with a historical introduction prefixed. The first part contains an account of the general geographical features of the state, its soil, climate, &c.; with a descriptive exhibit of its geology, botany, and zoology; the character of its population, education, government, and finances; its productions of agriculture, manufactures, mines, and forests; its internal improvements, trade, and commerce. The second part gives a description of each county, in alphabetical order; embracing its physical aspect, geological character, mineral products, soil, streams, towns and villages, productions, canals, railroads, turnpikes, bridges, &c.; the assessed value of property; the state of education; colleges, academies, and schools; religious denominations, natural curiosities—with a historical account of the early settlement, and a great number of other interesting particulars. The chapter relating to the trade and commerce of Pennsylvania furnishes so complete a view of the subject, in a form so comprehensive, that we concluded to adopt it; and have accordingly transferred it entire to a former part of this Magazine.

2.—*Manual of Classical Literature.* From the German of J. J. ESCHENBURG, Professor in the Carolinium at Brunswick. With Additions. By N. W. FISK, Professor in Amherst College. Fourth edition. 8vo., pp. 690. Philadelphia: E. C. Biddle.

This is one of the best, if not the very best, manuals of classical literature ever published in this country. It embraces treatises on Classical Geography and Topography, Classical Chronology, Greek and Roman Mythology, Greek Antiquities, Roman Antiquities, Archæology of Greek and Roman Literature, and of Art; History of Greek and Roman Literature, &c. Its adoption in many of the most popular literary institutions in the United States, and the high encomiums bestowed upon it by many of the most distinguished classical scholars of our time, renders our humble appreciation of its merits almost a work of supererogation. More than six thousand copies of it have been published since its first appearance. It is beautifully printed, and illustrated by a great number of appropriate engravings.

3.—*The Correspondence between Burns and Clarinda. With a Memoir of Mrs. M'Lehose, (Clarinda.)* Arranged and edited by her Grandson, W. C. M'LEHOSE. New York: Robert P. Bixby & Co.

The correspondence of Burns and Clarinda, so long sought for with a view of publication, is at length given to the world by a grandson of "Clarinda," now an adopted citizen of the United States. It does not, however, seem to meet the expectations of the critics. It will, no doubt, be read by the numerous admirers of the bard, and circulate as freely as his poetical works. Clarinda refused to sanction the publication during her lifetime; and, indeed, we think they add little to the reputation or fame of either party. The volume is beautifully printed on fine paper, and very neatly bound.

4.—*An Elementary Treatise on Human Physiology, on the Basis of the Précis Elémentaire de Physiologie.* Par F. Magendie, Member de l'Institute de France, &c. Translated, enlarged, and illustrated with diagrams and cuts. Especially designed for the use of Students of Medicine. By John Revere, M. D., Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine in the University of New York. 8vo., pp. 539. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present work is a translation from the fifth and last edition of the French, in which the science is brought down to the present time. It is not, like many modern systems, merely eclectic, or a compilation of the experiments and doctrines of others. All the important questions discussed, if not originally proposed and investigated by the author, have been thoroughly examined and experimented upon by him. His observations, therefore, on all these important points, carry with them great interest and weight, derived from their investigations. The American editor has added numerous diagrams and pictorial illustrations, with much additional matter, in order to present a system of human physiology which shall exhibit, in a clear and intelligible manner, the actual state of the science, and adapt the work to the use of students of medicine in the United States.

5.—*Border Wars of the American Revolution.* By William L. Stone. In two volumes, pp. 384, 381. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The popular work of Mr. Stone on the border wars of the American Revolution, appears to have been here embodied in two volumes, constituting the 167th and 168th numbers of Harpers' Family Library. It includes, of course, a particular account of Joseph Brant, who figured somewhat prominently in those wars, and is of value to all who wish to understand this portion of our history. The author has spared no pains in consulting records for the purpose of making his work authentic, and we are indebted to him for much new and interesting matter illustrating his subject.

6.—*Essays, Moral, Economical, and Political.* By Francis Bacon. *The Conduct of the Understanding.* By John Locke, Esq. With an Introductory Essay, by A. Potter, D.D., Professor of Moral Philosophy in Union College. 18mo., pp. 299. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The Essays of Bacon have arrived at that solid and standard reputation as to supersede the necessity of a commendation in our own age. As regards sound maxims of life and conduct, speculative and practical, they stand on the highest ground; and the reflections upon weighty topics of our human condition, are invaluable. The essay of Locke upon the Conduct of the Understanding, is of equally solid and established character, and the efforts of these two great authors are compressed into a convenient form for general circulation, with a critical and judicious introductory essay by Professor Potter, which adds to the solid value of the volume.

7.—*Harper's Illuminated and New Pictorial Bible.* No. 1. 4to., 24 pp. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is by far the most elegant specimen of printing ever produced in New York. When completed, it will embrace sixteen hundred historical engravings, exclusive of an initial letter to each chapter, by J. A. Adams, more than fourteen hundred of which are from original designs, by J. G. Chapman. It is printed from the standard copy of the American Bible Society, and is to contain marginal references, the apocrypha, a concordance, chronological table, list of proper names, general index, table of weights, measures, &c.; and will unquestionably, when completed, judging from the initiatory number, form the most perfect and splendid edition of the Bible extant. It is to be completed in about fifty numbers, at twenty-five cents each.

8.—*Warnock's Spare Minutes; or, Resolved Meditations, and Premeditated Resolutions.* Philadelphia: Henry F. Anners.

A very pretty pocket edition of a well known and really excellent little work.

9.—*The Psalmist; a New Collection of Hymns, for the use of the Baptist Churches.* By Baron Stow and S. F. Smith. 12mo., pp. 762. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

This elegantly printed volume contains nearly twelve hundred hymns, selected from about three hundred hymn-books, and writers of sacred song. We have never seen a collection, so extensive, combining, in so eminent a degree, the requisites of devotional poetry. There is not, in the whole book, a hymn that is void of lyrical spirit or excellence. The editors, it would seem, had read every hymn ever written; and, guided by a pure, correct, and elevated taste, selected only the best pieces. Setting aside its higher and more religious purposes, as a mere collection of chaste and exquisite poetical compositions, we know of no selection in our language that can compare with it. Although this collection was prepared for the Baptist denomination of Christians, but few of the hymns refer to their peculiarities; and these relate to baptism and immersion. If these, and the words "for the use of the Baptist churches," in the title-page, were struck out, we venture to say that there is not a church in the land but would find hymns enough, agreeable to the order of mental association, and all Christian experience.

10.—*Poems.* By James Russell Lowell. 12mo. Cambridge: John Owen. 1844.

This little volume is one of the brightest gems of American literature. It is characterized throughout by a high poetical genius; and there are passages in it of such exquisite beauty as to entitle their author to rank with the first poets in the English language. The "Legend of Brittany" is original in conception, style, and sentiment. With all the classic beauty of the past, it combines the higher moral tone of the present age. The Christian ideal, diffused among and acted out by the race, must bestow upon poetry a transcendant beauty, such as the passions of the dark ages could never call forth, even from their most gifted bards. In this Legend, "*The Forlorn,*" and a few other of the minor poems, Mr. Lowell has given a chaste expression to the highest sentiment of our time; thus fulfilling the poet's noblest sphere. The typographical execution of the volume is every way in keeping with its inner spirit.

11.—*The Beethoven Collection of Sacred Music.* By E. Ives, jr., W. Alpers, and H. C. Timm. 4to., pp. 192. New York: J. Winchester, New World Press.

This elegant volume of sacred music embraces themes now first arranged from the instrumental compositions of Beethoven, Haydn, Mozart, and other eminent composers; original tunes, chaunts, and anthems, harmonized in four parts, with an accompaniment for the organ. The first fifty pages are occupied with a new method of instruction in the rudiments of music, and the art of reading with annotations. A slight examination, with our limited knowledge of the science of music, convinces us of the singular excellence of this collection; and we have no hesitation in commending it to the attention of the musical world. It is beautifully printed.

12.—*Sonnets, and other Poems.* By William Lloyd Garrison. Boston: Oliver Johnson.

Mr. Garrison may not, perhaps, take rank among the most gifted of the poets of our time, although his effusions are not without merit on that score; and although some are inclined to consider him fanatical on the abolition question, no free and unbiassed mind can fail to appreciate his ardent love for Christian democratic freedom, and his martyr-like hatred of oppression and wrong whenever, and in whatever form, they appear. The sentiment in his comprehensive motto, "My country is the world, and my countrymen are all mankind," seems to be infused into every line that flows from his pen.

13.—*Poems of Bernard Barton.* Philadelphia: Henry F. Anners.

This is a very neat pocket edition of the "Quaker poet," and the only American that has ever been published in this country. Many of the poems are of a devotional character, and all of them seem to flow from the inspiration of a pure heart.

14.—*The Remains of the Rev. James Marsh, D. D., late President and Professor of Moral and Intellectual Philosophy in the University of Vermont. With a Memoir of his Life.* 8vo., pp. 642. Boston: Crocker & Brewster.

The contents of this volume were committed to Mr. Torrey by the lamented subject of the memoir, (which, with the letters, and extracts from his diary, occupies the first one hundred and sixty pages of the volume,) a short time before his death, with the request that selections should be made from them, and published. The volume consists chiefly of outlines of a systematic arrangement of the departments of knowledge, with a view to their organic relations to each other, in a general system; remarks on some of the leading points connected with physiology, and several discourses on the nature, ground, and origin of sin. The writings of Dr. M. evince eminent and peculiar powers of mind in the discussion of metaphysics; and, as an expounder of the highest truths of philosophy and moral science, the few fragments he has left are enough to place him among the first intellects of the age. The memoir is in good taste, and sketches with fidelity the simple incidents in the life of an unpretending scholar and Christian; and the whole is worthy of a place in the most valuable and select library. Dr. Marsh, it is well known, was a disciple of Coleridge, in the spiritual philosophy; and published, several years before his death, an edition of "Aids to Reflection," with an introduction, of marked ability and discrimination.

15.—*The Sacred Order and Offices of Episcopacy Asserted and Maintained. To which is added, A Discourse of the Office Ministerial.* By JEREMY TAYLOR, D. D., Lord Bishop of Down, etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The practical writings of the "Shakspeare in Divinity," as Bishop Taylor has been called, form an important part of the standard religious literature of the Christian world; and are read wherever the English language is understood, by men of widely different tenets. The present work, selected from his polemical writings, is published to meet the wants of the time, with reference to the discussion that is agitating the conflicting branches of the Christian church. It will no doubt be read by all who take an interest in the subject, and have great weight on minds predisposed to sustain the claims of Episcopacy. The volume is beautifully printed, uniform with the Churchman's Library, in course of publication by the enterprising house named in the title quoted.

16.—*The Mothers of England: their Influence and Responsibility.* By Mrs. ELLIS, New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is the last of the series of works, by Mrs. Ellis, on the women of England, in their relations as wives, daughters, and mothers. It contains many valuable hints and observations relative to the present state of English society, the tendency of modern education, and the peculiar social and domestic requirements of the country and the times. Mrs. Ellis's views, touching the rights of women, may perhaps be considered too conservative for our republican countrywomen; but she says many things adapted to the condition and circumstances of the women of America.

17.—*The Adventures of Daniel Boone, the Kentucky Rifleman.* By the author of "Uncle Philip's Conversations." 18mo., pp. 174. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The fifth volume of the admirable series of books under the general title of the "Library for my Young Countrymen," is one of the most interesting and attractive of books for the "lads of America" ever published. The extraordinary incidents in the life of Boone possess all the interest of romance; and, in the hands of the gifted author of "Uncle Philip's Conversations," are rendered at once fascinating and instructive.

18.—*Lalla Rookh. An Oriental Romance.* By THOMAS MOORE. A new edition, revised by the author. With a new Preface and Notes. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

A new and elegant diamond edition of one of the most delightful poems in the English language.

19.—*A Treatise on the Law of Usury. To which is added, the Statutes of the several States relating to Usury, now in Force. Together with a Digest of all the Decisions, and an Index to the Reported Adjudications, from the Statute of Henry VIII. to the Present Time.* By J. W. BLYDENBURGH, Counsellor at Law. 8vo., pp. 320. New York: John S. Voorhees.

This work is designed as a supplement to Powell, Comyn, and Ord. The numerous decisions since the publication of these books render it at once convenient, and almost indispensable. It is the only work on the subject ever published in this country. The statutes of every state in the Union, now in force, are given; and a long array of decisions of the courts under them, from the respective state reporters, follow the statutes. The arrangement and execution of the work is excellent; and, as the plan of repealing the usury laws has of late been, and will continue to be, discussed in many of the state legislatures, this work will, we have no doubt, be found as valuable to the statesman as to the lawyer, to whom we should consider it invaluable.

20.—*The Education of Mothers; or, the Amelioration of Mankind by Woman.* By L. AIME MARTIN. Translated from the French. By EDWIN LEE, Esq., author of the "Baths of Germany." 12mo., pp. 303. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

An elegant translation of the work to which the prize of the French Academy was awarded. It is divided into three parts, or books, and discusses in the first the influence of woman, and necessity of her education; in the second, the education of the soul-psychology and philosophy of the mother of a family; and in the third, the moral and political studies of mothers of families. The author points out, with great clearness, the defects of the old systems of education, and delineates in fascinating colors the rule of maternal duty. His arguments have a force and beauty which have never before been applied to the subject. It should be studied by all who are or expect to become mothers.

21.—*The Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe.* By DANIEL DE FOE. New York: Alexander V. Blake.

It is refreshing to take up a genuine and complete copy of a book that charmed us in our boyhood, and a work that has been read and admired, for several generations, by almost every boy and girl in Christendom. It is one of the few narratives of the past that must, from its intrinsic excellence, retain its freshness for the present, and unnumbered generations to come. It will never grow old, especially if it shall be hereafter sent forth as elegantly bound in gilt, and printed on paper as lily-white as is the present edition.

22.—*Letters from a Father to his Son at College.* By SAMUEL MILLER, D. D., Professor in the Theological Seminary, Princeton, N. J. 12mo., pp. 344. Philadelphia: Grigg & Elliott.

The author of this excellent work has had five sons educated in the college of New Jersey, and the substance of these letters were actually addressed to them. They touch every subject connected with the physical, mental, and moral life of the collegian; and their influence must inevitably prove most salutary.

23.—*Leo; or, the Baptism in Jordan in the Second Century.* By G. F. A. STRAUSS, author of "Helon's Pilgrimage," etc. Translated from the German. By MRS. F. C. CONANT. New York: Saxton & Miles.

Strauss, the author of the present tale, is one of the most distinguished among the learned orthodox clergy of Prussia, and holds several of the highest offices in the royal gift, being court-preacher, professor in the royal university, ecclesiastical counsellor, &c. A deep spirit of piety glows upon his pages, that cannot fail of awakening an answering fervor in kindred hearts.

24.—*Edwards' First Lessons in Geometry.* By the author of the "Theory of Teaching," and "Edwards' First Lessons in Grammar." Boston: W. D. Ticknor.

It needs only a superficial examination of this admirable little elementary treatise, to convince every one that it is the best thing of the kind that has yet been published.

25.—*History of all Christian Sects and Denominations, &c.* By JOHN EVANS, LL. D. 12mo., pp. 288. New York: James Mowatt & Co.

This volume purports to be a reprint of the fifteenth London edition. It contains the origin, peculiar tenets, and present condition of the religious world, and some account of atheists, deists, Jews, Mahommedans, &c. It appears to us, so far as we are capable of judging, to give an impartial view of the peculiarities of the different sects.

26.—*Infant Treatment; with Directions to Mothers for Self-Management before, during, and after Pregnancy.* By Mrs. BARWELL. 12mo., pp. 148. New York: James Mowatt & Co.

This first American edition of an English work has been enlarged, and adapted to the habits and climate of the United States, by a physician of New York. It has the approval and recommendation of Dr. Valentine Mott, and Charles A. Lee, M. D., which will be considered a sufficient guarantee of its excellence.

27.—*The Little Garden of Roses, and the Valley of Lilies.* By THOMAS A KEMPIS. Now first correctly translated from the original Latin. New York: Casserly & Son.

The "Imitation of Christ," by the same author, has been published by Protestants as well as Catholics, and held in high estimation by Christians of different denominations. The present work is considered by the translator more practical, better adapted to the individual wants of the religious, and more within the comprehension of the many.

28.—*The Child's Own Story Book; or, Tales and Dialogues for the Nursery.* By Mrs. JERRAM. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

This is the first American, from the third London edition. It is designed for little children, and is admirably calculated to awaken in their hearts kindly and affectionate feelings towards each other, submission and loving confidence towards their parents, and reverence and love towards God. It describes scenes and objects familiar to every child.

29.—*Lucy and Arthur. A Book for Children.* Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

Similar in its character and design to the "Child's Story Book." It is elegantly printed, and illustrated with several pretty engravings.

30.—*Very Little Tales for Very Little Children.* Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

Printed in large type, in single syllables of three and four letters, it is meant only for children who have just acquired the knowledge of their alphabet. The tales are progressive; and, by an easy, gradual ascent, lead the young learner on to the various early lessons provided by the many excellent writers of the present day.

31.—*The Following of Christ. In Four Books. Translated from the Original Latin.* By the Right Reverend and Venerable RICHARD CHALLONER, D. D. To which are added, Practical Reflections, etc. Translated from the French. By the Rev. JAMES JONES. Baltimore: John Murphy.

This little volume, designed for the Roman Catholic portion of the Christian church, has been familiar to the religious world for upwards of four centuries. Fontenelle pronounced it "the most excellent production that ever came from the hand of man." It is beautifully printed, and elegantly bound in gilt.

32.—*The Sacred Harp.* First American, from the fifteenth London edition: Philadelphia: Henry F. Anners.

Of all subjects, religion is the one best suited to the exercise of high and pure poetical inspiration. The specimens collected in this volume, from nearly a hundred of the most distinguished poets of the past and present, are made with a true appreciation of poetic excellence and the religious sentiment.

33.—*The Spirit of Prayer; or, the Soul Rising out of the Vanity of Time into the Riches of Eternity.* By WILLIAM LAW, A. M. New York: John S. Taylor.

This is, we understand, the first American edition of a work by the popular author of the "Serious Call," a book familiar to most Christians. It is practical, and generally free from sectarianism.

34.—*Combination. A Tale, founded on Facts.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This story furnishes a melancholy illustration of the corrupting influence of evil communications; and vividly and truly does it exhibit the fact that no combination in vice has power to stay the punishment that naturally and directly follows every transgression of the moral law.

35.—*The Wrongs of Women.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH.

We have noticed the several parts of this spirited expose of the wrongs of several classes of the female operatives of England, as they were republished. We have now before us two rival editions, one in two handsome 18mo. volumes of about two hundred and fifty pages each, in large type, published by M. W. Dodd; and the other in one neat volume of three hundred pages, published by John S. Taylor & Co. Each edition is complete, and embraces the four parts, viz: 1. Milliners and Dressmakers. 2. The Forsaken Home. 3. The Little Pin-Headers. 4. The Lace-Runners. These tales are drawn from real life, and are among the best and most useful productions of their popular author.

BOOKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, PUBLISHED SINCE OUR LAST.

1.—*The Life and Adventures of Jack of the Mill, commonly called Lord Othmill; created, for his eminent services, Baron of Waldeck, and Knight of Kitcottie. A Fireside Story.* By WILLIAM HOWITT. 8vo., pp. 91. New York: J. Winchester, and Harper & Brothers.

2.—*Alice; or, the Victim of One Indiscretion, and the Runaway Match.* 8vo., pp. 65. New York: John Allen.

3.—*The Jew.* By C. SPINDLER, author of "The Jesuit." Translated from the German. New York: Harper & Brothers, and J. Winchester.

4.—*Hans of Iceland; or, the Demon of the North. A Romance of Victor Hugo.* Translated from the French. By J. T. HUDSON. 8vo., pp. 141. New York: J. Winchester.

5.—*The Grumbler. A Novel.* By Miss ELLEN PICKERING. 8vo., pp. 134. New York: Harper & Brothers.

6.—*The Unloved One. A Domestic Story.* By Mrs. HOFLAND. 8vo., pp. 160. New York: Harper & Brothers.

7.—*The Heretic. Translated from the Russian of Sajetchnikoff.* By THOMAS B. SHAW, B. A. 8vo., pp. 150. New York: Harper & Brothers.

8.—*Animal Magnetism, or Mesmerism: its History, Phenomena, and Present Condition. Containing Practical Instructions, and the Latest Discoveries in the Science.* By WILLIAM LONG. With a Supplement by Rev. CHAUNCEY HARE TOWNSHEND. 12mo., pp. 144. New York: James Mowatt & Co.

9.—*Mrs. Ellis's Housekeeping Made Easy; or, Complete Instructor in all branches of Domestic Economy.* 12mo., pp. 108. New York: James Mowatt & Co.

10.—*Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature.* By JOHN KITTO, Editor of the Pictorial Bible, etc. Assisted by various able Scholars and Divines. Parts 5 and 6. New York: Mark H. Newman.

11.—*The Lady's Hand-Book of the Toilette. A Manual of Fashion, Health, and Beauty.* 18mo., pp. 64. New York: James Mowatt & Co.

12.—*Quacks and Quackery; or, a Popular Treatise on Medical Philosophy, and Imposture in Medicine.* By CALEB TICKNOR, M. D. New York: Mark H. Newman.

13.—*The Lady's Guide to Embroidery.* With fifteen engraved patterns. London edition. Enlarged by an American Lady. 18mo., pp. 48. New York: James Mowatt & Co.

14.—*The Lady's Work-Box Companion; being Instructions in all Varieties of Canvass-Work.* With twenty-nine engraved specimens. 18mo., pp. 44. New York: James Mowatt & Co.

15.—*The Management of the Sick-Room, with Rules for Diet, Cookery for the Sick and Convalescent, &c.* Compiled from the latest medical authorities by a Lady of New York, under the approval of C. A. LEE, M. D. 12mo., pp. 107. New York: James Mowatt & Co.

16.—*The Mysteries of London.* Translated from the French. By HENRY C. DEMING. Part 1. New York: J. Winchester.

17.—*Letters of the late Bishop England to the Hon. John Forsyth, on the subject of Domestic Slavery. To which is prefixed Copies, in Latin and English, of the Pope's Apostolic Letter concerning the African Slave Trade.* With Introductory Remarks. By W. GEORGE READ. 8vo., pp. 156. Baltimore: John Murphy.

18.—*Lecture on the Philosophy of History, and some Popular Errors which are Founded on it.* Delivered before the Culvert Institute, January, 1844. By S. TEACKLE WALLIS, Esq. 8vo., pp. 32. Baltimore: John Murphy.

19.—*Advice to Wives on the Management of themselves during the period of Pregnancy, Labor, and Suckling.* By Dr. PYE HENRY CHAVASSE, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. From the second London edition. 18mo., pp. 92. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

THE

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MAY, 1844.

Art. I.—SKETCHES OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

FREE TRADE *vs.* PROTECTION—DEBATE IN THE UNITED STATES SENATE.

Such of our readers as take any interest in the question of Free Trade *versus* Protection, and have paid attention to the proceedings in Congress since the opening of the present session, must be impressed with the conviction that the subject has never been more ably and thoroughly sifted than in the Senate during the debate on Mr. McDuffie's bill for the restoration of the compromise act. Although the discussion of the tariff policy was irregular on the pending question, inasmuch as no immediate or even remote practical action, affecting the existing tariff act, could be expected to result from the debate, yet the very circumstance that nothing was in view but opportunity for a fair argument on the policy of protection, had its advantages; because, the field was cleared of perplexing interests and details, and the encounter of intellect with intellect could proceed, unembarrassed, for the triumph of sound principles. There was also another advantage: that of conducting such an argument in the Senate in preference to the House of Representatives. The long term for which senators are elected, conducing to that maturity of judgment which results from experience in legislation; the fact that many senators have been frequently re-elected, still accumulating their experience; the consideration that, previous to taking their seats, not a few served for years in the other house, and must consequently retain much of the popular feelings which there prevailed; and the well-founded presumption that all are chosen by their respective legislatures as able, competent, and discreet state-delegates to the national council: concur in giving weight and dignity to their proceedings, and in inspiring that confidence which the sound-thinking and influential portion of the community will always accord to the argumentative deliberations of the Senate, contrasted with the impulsive, stormy, and partisan contests of the popular branch of Congress.

From these observations, it will be seen we are far from believing that,

because no immediate practical result was to attend its close, time has been misspent in this discussion. We are inclined to look upon it as a debate of great and general importance; well-timed, and well calculated to enlighten the public mind upon an intricate subject of paramount national interest. Impressed with this belief, we feel that we cannot better dispose of a few pages of our present number than by devoting them to an impartial review of the arguments advanced, during this debate, for and against the protective tariff policy. Previous, however, to entering upon the review contemplated, it is necessary to state the preliminary proceedings:

On Monday, the 18th of December, Mr. McDuffie, of South Carolina, gave notice, in Senate, that he would next day, or at the earliest convenient opportunity, ask leave to introduce a bill to revive the act of the 2d of March, 1833, (usually called the compromise act,) and to modify existing duties on foreign imports in conformity with its provisions. Next day, (Tuesday the 19th,) agreeably to the foregoing notice, he asked, and, *sub silentio*, obtained leave to introduce his bill,* which was read twice and referred to the committee on finance. Mr. King, of Alabama, admonished the committee to consider the question of jurisdiction, as he had his doubts relative to the practice of Congress with regard to permitting bills affecting revenue to originate in the Senate. Mr. McDuffie thought that whatever doubt might exist as to the propriety of originating bills to *raise revenue*, there could be none as to the propriety of the initiatory movement to *reduce taxation*. Mr. Evans, of Maine, chairman of the finance committee, did not object to the reference, at the same time he expressed strong doubts as to the propriety of originating such a bill in the Senate.

On Tuesday, the 9th of January, Mr. Evans reported back the bill, from the finance committee, accompanied by a report† consisting of two resolutions, the first in the nature of a preamble, and the second as its conclusion, to postpone indefinitely the consideration of the bill. The bill and report were ordered to be printed; and the question, on the report, was made the special order for the next Thursday, the 11th. In consequence, however, of other business interfering on the appointed day, the

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* The following is a copy of the bill:—

Sec. 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled*, That so much of the existing law imposing duties upon foreign imports as provides that duties ad valorem on certain commodities shall be assessed upon an assumed *minimum* value, be, and the same is hereby, repealed; and that said duties be hereafter assessed on the true value of such commodities.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That, in all cases in which the existing duty upon any imported commodity exceeds thirty per centum on the value thereof, such duty shall hereafter be reduced to thirty per centum ad valorem.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That, from and after the 31st day of December next, all duties upon foreign imports shall be reduced to twenty-five per centum; and, from and after the 31st of December, 1844, to twenty per centum ad valorem.

† The following are the resolutions:—

Resolved, That the bill entitled "A bill to revive the act of the 2d March, 1833, usually called the compromise act, and to modify the existing duties upon foreign imports in conformity with its provisions," is a bill for raising revenue within the meaning of the 7th section of the 1st article of the Constitution, and cannot therefore originate in the Senate: therefore

Resolved, That it be indefinitely postponed.

subject did not come up for discussion till Thursday, the 18th of January, when, on Mr. Evans's motion, the finance committee's report was taken up. Mr. King remarked that he considered the bill itself, and not the committee's report, the proper subject for discussion. The chair viewed the question at issue as one on an adverse report. Mr. King contended that common sense and parliamentary usage pointed out the course to be, that opportunity should be given to perfect the bill and render it acceptable, before a motion to postpone indefinitely could with propriety be put. The chair, however, seemed to think that the question on the committee's report had precedence of the consideration of the bill. Mr. Evans disclaimed any unwillingness, on his part or that of his friends, to meet the discussion of the bill on its merits; what the committee had in view was, to obtain a decision of the Senate on the question of jurisdiction.

Considerable discussion arose on this point; in the course of which it transpired, that it was competent to debate the merits of the bill on the question of adopting the committee's report. It was, therefore, decided that the discussion should proceed on that question. Mr. Evans then addressed the Senate at great length and with much ability, on the isolated point of jurisdiction, supporting the view taken by the majority of the finance committee. He argued that the words in the constitution, "raising revenue," clearly indicated *providing* revenue; and, as the bill first went to repeal, substantially, the present tariff act, and then to dictate the duties to be levied hereafter, it was strictly a bill for *providing*, that is, *raising revenue*. Mr. Woodbury looked upon this as a fastidious objection, the practice of the Senate having heretofore given sanction to the principle of originating bills of a similar character, the object of which was obviously not adverse to the constitutional prohibition. He instanced several bills materially affecting the revenue of the post-office, which had originated in the Senate; and with regard to the general revenue, referred to Senate bills now on the statute-book affecting tonnage duties on shipping, and drawbacks, as well as reducing duties on wines and other articles. He opposed the report as an innovation on the established rights of the Senate. Mr. Huntington, of Connecticut, denied that postage was revenue; and did not consider the instances referred to, by Mr. Woodbury, analagous to the present case. He supported the views taken by Mr. Evans, chairman of the finance committee. Mr. Buchanan admitted that a difficulty had occurred to him in the progress of the debate on the question of jurisdiction, which was, that it was competent to amend the bill; and if an amendment were adopted raising the duty on any one article, or subjecting a free article to duty, it would undoubtedly make the bill a bill to raise revenue, within the prohibition of the constitution.

Next day, (the 19th,) when the subject was resumed, Mr. McDuffie took the floor and spoke for three hours, principally on the merits of the bill. He dwelt but very briefly on the preliminary question of jurisdiction; answering Mr. Buchanan's objection, by admitting that such an amendment as he supposed, if adopted, would be fatal to the bill; but he contended that it could not be entertained in view of the constitutional interdict, and, therefore, the unconstitutionality would consist, not in entertaining the bill, but in adopting the amendment. The true intent and meaning of the constitutional prohibition was, to prevent the Senate from increasing the taxes and burdens of the people. But he considered it quite conformable to the spirit and purpose of the framers of the consti-

tution to diminish taxation, and relieve the people from unequal and unjust burdens—the very object this bill had in view.

The Senate having tacitly acquiesced in the understanding that the widest latitude should be given to the discussion, Mr. McDuffie, as the mover of the measure to restore the compromise act, took the lead, and stated his views in opposition to the protective tariff policy with eloquence and power. The authentic copy of his speech, published in the Globe, is, we understand, compressed into half the length at which it was delivered. Yet we are necessarily compelled to subject, not only it, but all the speeches delivered on the occasion, to much greater compression, with a view of getting into the limits we can devote to the subject this month, an epitome of the main points of controversy.

Looking through Mr. McDuffie's opening speech with much care and attention, we are enabled to give the following synopsis of his argument:

The tariff law of 1842, he insists, should be called an act to *prevent*, instead of an act to *provide* revenue. He says: "It is entitled an act to *provide* revenue—falsehood and deception stamped on the very front of it. A bill to *provide revenue!* which lays an average duty of 100 per cent on several descriptions of imports that would come into the United States, to the amount of $40,000,000 annually, under a revenue duty of 20 per cent, but which are now totally excluded by these enormous duties. I will not go into details, but state generally, that the duties on window-glass range from 94 to 178 per cent, making an average of more than 150 per cent on all descriptions; that the duties on many varieties of manufactured iron, embracing most of the tools and implements necessarily used on every farm and plantation in the country, are from 75 to 150 per cent, and more, ad valorem; that the duty on raw iron, an article in universal use, is 112½ per cent; that the duty on all those cotton manufactures which come under the *minimum* principle of valuation, (and which would be imported annually to the amount of $10,000,000 or $15,000,000 under a revenue duty of 20 per cent,) range from 60 to 150 per cent on their true value; that the duty on salt—an article of universal use, consumed in almost equal quantities by the rich and the poor, and extensively consumed by every farmer, not only for family purposes, but ten times more extensively for his live stock—is 8 cents per bushel, (the article costing only 5 or 6 cents in Liverpool,) equal to 133⅓ per cent on the original cost."

On the question of constitutional power to impose prohibitory duties—a power which he utterly denies to exist for that object—he lays down a rule for distinguishing revenue duties from protective duties. The rule is this: a revenue duty must be the lowest possible rate that will yield the largest, or the required amount of revenue, for the support of the government. Any duty, however small, is, to a certain extent, a prohibitory duty; a duty of 10 per cent excludes a considerable amount of imports; a duty of 20 per cent excludes still more; and so on, progressively, till the point of total prohibition is reached. "To be more specific," Mr. McDuffie says, "I will assume that, under a duty of 20 per cent on foreign manufactured cottons, the amount of $20,000,000 would be imported into the United States, on which a duty of 20 per cent would yield a revenue to the government of $4,000,000; and that a duty of 40 per cent would yield precisely the same amount of revenue, and no more, prohibiting half the imports that would come in if the duty were only 20 per

cent;—now, I ask the Senate, which of these is the true revenue duty—that of 20 per cent, yielding $4,000,000 of revenue, or that of 40 per cent, yielding the same amount of revenue, and imposing double the amount of burdens on the people? . . . . It is self-evident that 20 of the 40 per cent duty could be imposed with no other design, certainly with no other effect, than to levy a contribution of 20 per cent on the mass of the people, to supply a protective bounty of 20 per cent to the manufacturers."

He then goes on to show that he has conceded too much in supposing 40 per cent would yield as much as 20 per cent duty for revenue; and he asks what then must be the prohibitory effect of 40, 70, 80, 100, 120, and 180 per cent duty on the immense amount of foreign manufactured cotton goods, which, but for such duties, would be consumed by the middle and poorer classes of the people of the United States. He says: "A large proportion of the prints and calicoes consumed in the United States, and of which every female of the middle and poorer classes is a consumer, cost, in Manchester, from 6 to 12 cents a yard; but they are charged with duties of from 75 to 150 per cent by the ingenious contrivance of an artificial and false valuation."

We now come to a very interesting part of Mr. McDuffie's argument, that relating to "discrimination." After denouncing the tariff law of 1842 as an imposition of unrighteous burdens, not for purposes of revenue, but for taking money out of the pockets of one class of the community and putting into those of another, he says, "An idea has got abroad—and I am sorry to say that many of the friends of free trade have been deceived and betrayed by it, as many patriot-soldiers have been by the holding out of false colors—an idea has obtained currency, that, although you cannot impose duties for any other purpose but that of revenue, yet you may rightfully impose revenue duties, 'with a *wise* discrimination for the protection of domestic manufactures.' This is part of the new system of tactics to which the manufacturers have found it necessary to resort. They say one thing, and mean another. What do they mean by 'a *wise* discrimination?' Obviously a discrimination that will exclude imports and *diminish* revenue. 'A *wise* discrimination!' Pray, what is your whole system of revenue—levied, as it is, exclusively from duties on imports—but an enormous discrimination in favor of the manufacturers and their confederates, and against all other classes? . . . . I now propose to explain my view of 'a *wise* discrimination!' It seems to be a very prevailing idea that the south insists upon the system of horizontal duties. This is a very great mistake. For myself, I insist that discriminations are proper and necessary, with reference strictly to considerations of revenue. In my opinion, two kinds of discrimination belong properly to our system of revenue. The first is, to impose the highest rate of duties upon those imports which will yield a given amount of revenue with the least burden to the people. The second is, to impose the highest rate of duties upon articles consumed by the wealthy, and the lowest upon those consumed by the poor. The simple application of those two principles, the justice and policy of which would seem to be almost self-evident, would reverse the whole system of your legislation on this subject. For, whereas you lay a duty of 150 per cent on coarse fabrics, and only 30 per cent on the finer qualities, I would impose a duty of 25 per cent on the more costly fabrics, and only 15 upon the inferior qualities. This would be a discrimination that would increase revenue, and at the same time diminish the burdens of the poor,

instead of increasing the bounties of the rich. The other kind of discrimination, having in view the largest revenue with the least burden, requires that a lower rate of duty should be imposed upon imported commodities which come in competition with domestic manufactures, than upon articles, the like of which are not produced in the United States. Fine silks, fine muslins, tea and coffee, are commodities not produced in the United States. If you impose a duty of 20 per cent on $20,000,000 of these imports, it will yield $4,000,000 of revenue, and impose just that burden, and no more, upon the people. But if you impose a duty of 20 per cent on $20,000,000 of cotton manufactures, you raise the same amount ($4,000,000) of revenue, and impose a burden of $12,000,000 on the people. This results from the fact that for every dollar's worth of manufactures you import, there are two dollars' worth of domestic manufactures of which the price is enhanced 20 per cent by the duty imposed upon the foreign. It will be perceived, then, that a revenue of $4,000,000 raised by duties on fine silks, muslins, tea and coffee, would produce only one-third of the burden which would result from the same amount of revenue raised by duties on cotton manufactures."

The following is a condensed view of some statistics compiled by Mr. McDuffie as an illustration of his argument. The ascertained amount of duty-paying imports, during the first year of the operation of the tariff law of 1842, was $40,000,000, which, at 40 per cent duty—the average rate of the act—would yield 16,000,000 of revenue. The protected manufactures of the United States amount to $160,000,000, prohibiting $80,000,000 of foreign imports, and admitting $80,000,000 in competition with the domestic manufactures. The 40 per cent duty levied on $40,000,000, actually imported, yield but $16,000,000 to the treasury for revenue; while the $80,000,000 of domestic fabrics, with which the foreign come in competition, are enhanced 40 per cent by the import duty, giving a bounty to the manufacturers on their $80,000,000 of $32,000,000, which, with half the revenue on the $40,000,000 of foreign goods duty paid, the other half (20 per cent) being necessary for revenue, makes $40,000,000 burden on the people, to put $16,000,000 in the treasury. But the burden is still greater than that, for the $80,000,000 of domestic goods, which totally exclude $80,000,000 of foreign imports, are enhanced at least 10 per cent, making $8,000,000 additional burden on the people, or, on the whole, $48,000,000 bounty to manufacturers, only $16,000,000 of which go into the treasury for revenue.

Mr. McDuffie sustained this calculation by estimates, showing the profits of cotton manufacturers in Massachusetts to be from 35 to 40 per cent, and in other states 29; of iron manufacturers 34 per cent; of salt manufacturers 80 per cent; the grand result of which, he deduces, is that, beyond the necessary revenue for the government, the people of the United States have to pay a tribute of $32,000,000 to domestic manufacturers.

Mr. McDuffie next takes up the allegation that protection means the protection of domestic against foreign industry; and he argues at much length, and gives numerous illustrations, to prove that protection induces a conflict between one branch of domestic industry and another, and that there can be no competition between foreign industry and domestic industry, where there is only an exchange of labor for labor. He regards the protective policy of the last twenty years as destructive of half the commerce of this country, comparing what it is with what it would be but for

this policy; and yet what is left has to sustain the government, yielding all its revenue as it has done from the beginning; but it is now rapidly verging to extinction, for Europe will not and cannot purchase the exports of this country, if its productions will not be received in exchange. While thus steadily advancing the suicidal policy of destroying commerce, $9,000,000 is asked to support a navy, the only use for which is the protection of commerce. "Against whom," exclaims Mr. McDuffie, "is a navy required to defend our Atlantic commerce? Against pirates? Against foreign power? Against Great Britain?—for she is the raw-head and bloody-bones always invoked to silence opposition against wasteful expenditure. As a producer of the great staple on which it (commerce) is mainly founded, I declare, with all solemnity, that I regard the Congress of the United States, as it has been constituted for the last twenty years, as more to be dreaded than all the powers of Europe combined, and all the pirates that ever infested the ocean."

With regard to the argument that domestic manufactures furnish a market for agricultural produce, he admits it is good as far as it goes—that is, in the very limited vicinity of manufactories; but he contends, that, what the factories of New England are to the agriculturists of their neighborhood, Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, &c., are to the cotton growers of the south—their markets; distance making no difference. "There is another argument," says Mr. McDuffie, "of which, I believe, the manufacturers keep a constant supply stereotyped for the use of their customers: that high duties upon foreign imports diminish, instead of enhance prices! Now, this is one of those incomprehensible paradoxes which they can successfully address only to the blind faith of their followers. . . . . If high duties produce low prices, it would seem to follow that low duties would produce high prices; and the manufacturers should go strenuously for reduction. But if this argument must be gravely met, the answer is as simple as it is conclusive; if the manufacturer cannot obtain remunerating prices with a protection of 20 per cent, he certainly cannot afford to sell at lower prices; but if he can afford to sell at lower prices, he certainly does not require more protection than 20 per cent will afford him."

He next combats a doctrine, promulgated some years ago, and still held up in favor of protection, that it is necessary to relieve this country from the payment of a tribute to foreign nations. It was first broached by Mr. J. Q. Adams, when president, in one of his messages to Congress. Now what is the fact? The tribute is paid to home manufacturers, not to foreigners, for the latter offer to supply their goods at from 20 to 40 per cent cheaper than the home manufacturer, and in exchange, too, for the productions of American labor.

He then adverts to Mr. Clay's recent letter, in which he says, in substance, that in regard to foreign commerce, it is the policy of this country "to sell as much and buy as little as possible." This, Mr. McDuffie said, he read with surprise. It threw the exploded doctrine of the balance of trade quite in the shade. That would certainly be no gainful commerce in which much was to be given and little received. It is precisely what even Alexander Hamilton denominated "a vain attempt to sell everything and buy nothing." As it could not mean to give away our products, it must mean that we are to drain foreign nations of all their gold and silver. That was the policy which impoverished and ruined Spain, after

the discovery of America. This forced import of the precious metals would add not one cent to the substantial wealth of the country. The more of them we accumulated, the less value they would represent here, and the scarcer they became abroad, the less would become the demand then for our exports; and so it would go on until we would become like impoverished Spain, perishing like a miser while gloating on his gold.

Mr. McDuffie next examines the effect of the protective system on the south, the staple exporting states. He computes that some five or six of the northern states enjoy all the bounties of protection, and some eight or nine of the southern states are made tributary to them. Their interests are set at variance by the protective policy. It is the interest of the manufacturing states to prohibit foreign importations; while it is the interest of the southern states to encourage importations, the exchange of which, for their staple exports, is essential to the existence of their industry. Here, then, is direct proof that the protective policy produces a conflict between one branch of domestic industry and another. "When," observes Mr. McDuffie, "you have prohibited the importation of manufactures from Europe, you will have totally destroyed the demand for six-sevenths of our cotton, rendering it utterly valueless. . . . This is a question of life or death to the south and southwest. The crisis approaches when it must be decided. . . . Ever since the tariff of 1828, I have regarded the exporting and slave states as being practically reduced to a state of colonial vassalage to the manufacturing states. . . . Even if you were to come down to a revenue duty, with the discriminations I have stated, it would be the most unequal and oppressive, in its operation on the exporting states, of any revenue system in the world. No other nation ever attempted to throw the whole burden of taxation upon imports. Even in Great Britain, the country which draws most largely from her imports, much the greater portion of her revenue is derived from her various internal taxes, direct and indirect."

But the northern states might push this system to the extremity of reaction against themselves. If the south, instead of letting its staples rot on its hands, should be compelled to go to manufacturing, could it not be done, with her facilities and cheap slave labor, so as to gain not only the home market, but to drive the competition of the north out of foreign markets? Could the north attempt the analagous oppression of imposing a duty of 40 per cent on the manufactures of the south, leaving the similar manufactures of the north duty free? "And yet," observes Mr. McDuffie, "such a proposition, monstrous and revolting as it would be, differs in no substantial particular from the tariff of 1842. It is only necessary to tear off the disguise of this latter measure, to make the likeness manifest. . . . However secure gentlemen may feel, they may find that they stand on a sandy foundation; and I venture to predict that, in five years, the west will be as united in opposition to a protective tariff as the south. This monster of legislative injustice—this mammon of eastern idolatry—can never be worshipped by an enlightened people, when stripped of his disguise; unveil his deformities, and his deluded followers, not less than his victims, will shrink back with abhorrence. I have humbly attempted to perform this office; and now, having done my duty, I leave the consequences to God."

Mr. McDuffie having concluded, Mr. Evans intimated his desire to reply. The further discussion of the subject was, however, postponed to the

succeeding Monday, the 22d. On that day, when it was again called up, Mr. Evans addressed the Senate for two hours, in answer to Mr. McDuffie; but not being able to conclude, at the usual hour of adjournment, the debate was laid over for next day, and when again resumed, Mr. Evans continued his remarks for three hours; having, in the two days, occupied the floor five hours, in one of the best digested and ablest arguments in favor of protection delivered in Congress since the revival of the tariff policy.

The first point Mr. Evans took up to answer, was Mr. McDuffie's objection to the policy of deriving all the revenue of the government from duties on imports. Mr. Evans would not admit that the practice of European governments was a proper guide for us, their circumstances and institutions being different. They, he contended, are deeply involved in debt; have expensive establishments, civil, military, and ecclesiastical; have but one government, each, to maintain; and could not, if they would, derive sufficient revenue for their support from customs. But here the case is altogether different; our debt is trifling; our establishments limited and unexpensive; we have two governments to maintain, the general government and state governments; and we can always derive enough of revenue from imports. He contrasted the aggregate of taxes in England, with the aggregate of taxes in the United States, including the state taxes with those of the general government, to show that the proportion of the whole in England, derived from customs, exceeds the proportion of the whole in the United States, derived from duties on imports. Hence he deduced the corollary, that, even if admissable, the example of European governments is favorable to the practice of the general government of the United States.

Mr. Evans next adverts to Mr. McDuffie's denunciation of the act of 1842, in which he had characterised it as destructive to commerce and revenue. Mr. Evans wholly denies that there is any foundation for such assertions. First, with regard to revenue, he contends that it has largely increased, and is going on progressively increasing. He considers the articles in Mr. McDuffie's schedule of high duties, unimportant for revenue at any time; the aggregate of imports, and not separate articles, being the only true criterion to estimate revenue by. He says, "Every article has relation to every other article. The free importation of some may occasion a very diminished importation of others. A diminished import, or a total prohibition of some, may render necessary or profitable a large import of others, yielding a larger amount of revenue. An act laying duties, therefore, must be regarded as a whole, and not in insulated and detached parts. The true rule would seem to be so to graduate and adjust the duties upon the various descriptions of articles imported, that, upon the whole mass, and not upon each separate parcel, the largest amount of revenue may be derived."

In discussing this point, Mr. Evans develops the whole theory of protection; and, in doing so, he illustrates his argument so very elaborately, that it would take many pages to give even a condensed view of his positions. From the whole, however, we derive the fact, that the key-stone on which depends the stability of the arch, is, that legislation can give LABOR the means wherewith to become the purchaser and consumer of duty-paying imports, and, consequently, of increasing revenue, while adding to its own enjoyments. We reserve our examination of this princi-

ple for our general review of the debate. Meantime, let us see what Mr. Evans says on this point. He asks, "Does the honorable senator (Mr. McDuffie) suppose that his bill, if it should become a law, will yield a larger amount of revenue than the act of 1842? He appears to take it as proven that such will be the case, when he has shown that, under its provisions, some of the articles, separately considered, will furnish more than they do now. Possibly, under his bill, several descriptions of merchandise may be imported more extensively than they are at present, and may yield more revenue than they now yield. But might they not exclude other importations which yield us more still? Might they not diminish consumption by diminishing the ability of the people to buy? Revenue is not derived from importation, merely. There must be consumption, also. If not consumed, foreign fabrics will cease to be imported, and then revenue must cease also. Whatever stimulates consumption, or, which is the same thing, whatever adds to the ability of the people of the country to purchase, adds to the importations, and adds to the revenue. Suppose, that by reason of high duties, or by direct prohibition, you exclude foreign fabrics from the country, which, under a moderate duty would yield $5,000 or $10,000 to the revenue, do you necessarily impair the revenue to that extent? Not if, by reason of such exclusion, you call into exercise American industry for the supply of the article, to such an extent as to enable hundreds or thousands of our people, by the profitable employment they obtain, to become purchasers and consumers of other commodities, necessaries, and luxuries, which they could not otherwise have enjoyed, and upon which an equal or greater amount of revenue is collected than there would have been upon the articles thus excluded. The entire prohibition of one commodity, or of several, which would furnish some revenue, may indeed be ultimately beneficial to the treasury. This is the case whenever the exclusion of it gives occasion or creates a demand for an enlarged importation of other commodities, upon which a higher duty is exacted. This is experience. Gentlemen are often quite at a loss to comprehend how it is, that we expect foreign imports to increase, when additional duties have been imposed upon them. It is because we look to the aggregate of the merchandise imported. Particular descriptions of goods may fall off, some may be prohibited entirely, but the whole mass is increased. The consumption of the country will always be in proportion to its ability to purchase. Whenever you advance industry, and give labor employment which it had not before—when you enable laborers to clothe themselves and their families better than they did before, and obtain more of the necessaries and comforts of life, and especially to become consumers of luxuries to which they were strangers, you enlarge the number of consumers of dutiable imports—you make a new class which did not exist before, and you necessarily increase the imports and increase the revenue."

These, Mr. Evans relies upon as facts and accumulated experience, in conformity with Bacon's inductive proofs of establishing leading truths; while he accords to his opponent, Mr. McDuffie, all the advantages of the ancient scholastic system of first imagining a speculative theory, and then bending facts to fit it, but, if refractory, rejecting them, or postponing them till futurity discovers their conformity. The following are the inductive facts which he arrays in contradiction of the newspaper assertions, that the revenue of the government under the pressure of the tariff law of 1842

is declining, the public debt increasing, and that a resort to other taxes will be necessary to supply the treasury, if that law is not speedily modified. He says the receipts of the treasury from the imports of 1842 were about $13,000,000, the rate of duty being 23 per cent. The receipts in, 1843, were $17,000,000, the average rate of duty being 34 per cent. "What," he asks, "is the result of the comparison? We have added over $4,000,000 to the revenue. How does it bear on the honorable senator's doctrine that low duties increase the revenue? A rate of 23 per cent, which is somewhat above the point arrived at by the senator, yielded but $13,000,000, while a rate of 34 per cent yielded $17,000,000. Which is the revenue point? Can any thing be plainer than that the act of 1842 has occasioned no actual diminution of revenue? And, in my judgment, it is equally plain that it has added $4,000,000 to it."

As to the relative imports, he refers to a recent treasury report to show that the amount of imports for the commercial year to 30th September, 1843, was about $88,000,000, being an admitted falling off of $10,000,000 or $12,000,000 from 1842. This falling off he accounts for as occasioned by general prostration of business, and the uncertainty as to any tariff law, which hung over the action of Congress. Since, however, the act went into operation, the imports have been progressively increasing, according to the treasury report, which gives the following table:—

	Dutiable imports.	Gross duties.
4th quarter of 1842,.....	$7,228,502	$2,566,438
1st " 1843,.....	10,441,567	3,391,876
2d " 1843,.....	11,491,228	4,376,356
3d " 1843,.....	19,634,059	6,659,357
Total,.....	$48,795,356	$16,994,027

The free articles imported declined as the dutiable articles increased; so that, in the third quarter of 1843, they amounted only to $4,896,514, the aggregate of the year being $40,470,755—the average of the four quarters, each $10,117,688; the quarter having the largest amount of dutiable imports, giving the smallest amount of free imports, or not half the average. "How," Mr. Evans asks, "could this happen, if the act of 1842 had such disastrous operation upon the revenue, and upon the imports from which the revenue is derived?—the free list diminishing, the dutiable increasing."

Mr. Evans then goes on to prove the flourishing condition of the revenue, and to set at rest the apprehensions of the secretary of the treasury that there will be a deficiency of $4,000,000 at the end of the current fiscal year. He does not think it necessary to expend within the year anything like the sum estimated by the secretary of the treasury; and he shows various ways in which the secretary may avoid having any deficit. But, independent of these, he differs altogether from the secretary, as to his estimate of probable revenue; which is, for the quarter just closed, $3,100,000, for the current quarter $4,600,000, and for the last quarter $3,600,000. Now, the past quarter, Mr. Evans's estimate considerably exceeded what the secretary supposed; the current quarter he is satisfied will go beyond the secretary's estimate, at least $1,500,000—but say $1,000,000, and as much more for the last quarter. The excess on the secretary's estimates will be between $2,000,000 and $3,000,000, quite enough, with unexpended balances of appropriations and outstanding war-

rants, to prevent any deficiency, even if the expenditure must be as large as anticipated.

Mr. Evans next proceeds to examine the probable condition of the treasury for the fiscal year to 30th June, 1845. The estimates of the secretary of the treasury are, that the expenditures of the year will be $26,877,059; including the expected appropriations of Congress, $22,000,000. Now, Mr. Evans sees very little indications in the House of Representatives, that the appropriations will be allowed to exceed $15,000,000 or $16,000,000, which will be $6,000,000 or $7,000,000 less than the secretary of the treasury estimates. Here would be a considerable saving; but, independent of that, the secretary of the treasury underrates the probable receipts from customs. He estimates them at $20,000,000. Mr. Evans says he will be greatly surprised if they do not exceed $23,000,000. Practical and intelligent merchants anticipate that the customs will yield from $25,000,000 to $26,000,000. "Looking," observes Mr. Evans, "to the present condition of affairs—to the advancing prosperity of the country, as exhibited in increasing commerce, in the appreciating value of real estate in the commercial cities, in the formation of new mercantile firms, in the restored confidence which now exists, in the stimulus given to enterprise and industry—looking at all these evidences of general improvement, I do not know that their expectations are very extravagant. . . . . To give a revenue of $23,000,000 it is only necessary to import $64,000,000 or $65,000,000 of dutiable merchandise. We have often imported much more than that when the rate of duties was higher than at present. And now, when there is increased prosperity, when money is abundant, confidence restored, enterprises enlarged, all branches of business starting into fresh life and vigor—what reason is there to expect we shall not be able to import from $60,000,000 to $70,000,000 as well as in times past? Indeed, I think we may very safely expect the imports of the year will amount to $100,000,000. The proportion of dutiable imports, as indicated in the returns of the third quarter of last year, is something over four-fifths of the whole; and if the same proportion should continue, which I hardly expect, it would give an import of over $80,000,000 dutiable, yielding a revenue of $28,000,000."

Mr. Evans next takes in hand Mr. McDuffie's plan of "discrimination," which, he says, amounts to this, that it is to be confined to two objects: for the benefit of the revenue, and for the benefit of the poor. He complains that there is none for the manufacturers or home industry. Mr. Evans says he does not object to discrimination for purposes of revenue; but he does, to Mr. McDuffie's mode of applying it, particularly, with regard to laying the highest duties on imports coming in competition with domestic productions, and the heaviest on those of which we produce none. Mr. Evans does not agree with Mr. McDuffie that revenue, and discrimination in favor of home manufactures, are incompatible. He thinks, on the contrary, that the first thing to be done to produce revenue, is to favor consumption by giving the people the ability to buy imports; therefore, discrimination to help revenue, must help consumption. Then, as to Mr. McDuffie's proposition to discriminate in favor of the poor, Mr. Evans thinks it far better to legislate so as to have no poor at all. He says, legislate to abolish poverty by doing away with the causes of it. "Improve," he says, "the condition of your people; give them wherewith to go to work; give them employment; stimulate and protect their in-

dustry; let them acquire competency and wealth. That is the only relief necessary or desirable to give them. Merely to relieve them from a burden, is like indiscriminate charity—their wants are perpetually returning. How much better is it to enable them to relieve themselves by their own industry? Charity is not what the people of this country want, or ought to want. They want their legislation adapted to their habits of enterprise, industry, and independence. There is no want of proneness in our people to indulge in extravagance and luxury, whenever they are able to do so, and often when they are not. Give them the ability to purchase articles yielding revenue, and they will assuredly purchase them."

Mr. Evans then adverts to the question of commerce, and he takes issue at once with Mr. McDuffie on his assertion that there is any decline in the foreign commerce of the United States. He insists that the proofs he has adduced of improvement in the revenue and of increasing imports, put to flight the notion that half our commerce is destroyed and the other half destined soon to follow. He treats, however, the amount of foreign commerce, compared with internal commerce, as insignificant, though, as far as it goes, he is willing to join in all the eulogies Mr. McDuffie pronounces upon it as a bond of amity among nations, a harbinger of civilization, and nursery for naval defence. Our internal commerce he estimates at $1,000,000,000; our external commerce at little more than a tenth of that sum. He thinks it vastly more important to protect and foster this immense internal commerce and strengthen the bonds of amity among our own states, than to give all our attention to our foreign commerce and amicable relations with foreign nations. "But," he asks, "what proof is there that half of our foreign commerce is struck down? Who complains? Neither extensive merchants, importers, ship-owners, nor navigators. On the contrary, there are evidences of renewed enterprise in foreign trade, new ships are being built, freights are improving, and great activity exists in commercial pursuits."

Next, as to Mr. McDuffie's position that the high duties imposed by the act of 1842, by diminishing imports, in the same ratio diminish exports, injuriously curtailing the foreign demand for our staple productions; Mr. Evans insists that it is a gratuitous assumption, for, says he, experience is adverse to the position. In proof of this, he quotes a report submitted to Congress by the secretary of the treasury at the beginning of the session, showing the imports since 1821, divided into periods corresponding with the changes of tariff. For the sake of brevity, we throw Mr. Evans's illustration into tabular form:—

No. of years.	Period.	Am't of imports.	Average per year.	Av. rate of duty.
4	From 1821 to 1824,.....	$264,960,000	$66,000,000	34 per cent.
4	" 1825 to 1828,.....	301,550,000	75,000,000	38 "
4	" 1829 to 1832,.....	297,330,000	74,330,000	41 "
9	" 1833 to 1841,.....	631,000,000	71,000,000	31 "
1	1842,.....	69,500,000	69,500,000	23 "

The inferences he draws from this table, are, that the increase of duties by the tariff law of 1824, was accompanied by increased importations; that the great rise of duties by the high tariff of 1828, made scarcely any reduction in the amount of imports; that, under the reducing duties of the compromise act, importations fell off $3,000,000 in the average; and that at the lowest rate of duty, 23 per cent, in 1842, the imports fell down to $69,500,000. He admits, however, that in 1843, the imports fell still lower by nearly 29 per cent, coming down to $48,750,000; but this he

attributes to causes already adverted to, and not to the tariff law of 1842. He is satisfied it could not be that act, because the free list articles fell off at the same time 34 per cent—still more than the dutiable articles.

Mr. Evans treats as a mere theoretical fallacy, the idea advanced by Mr. McDuffie, that duties not only enhance prices, but bring up all the domestic articles of the kind thus taxed, to the standard of the enhanced price of the imported articles. He says, experience is directly against this theory. He relies upon the tests of all tariff acts hitherto passed, to prove that they generally have occasioned a decline of prices. The way he accounts for it is this:—prices depend on supply and demand; if the supply is short of the demand, the holders can put on more profits and make prices high; if the demand is short of the supply, the holders of goods, anxious to sell, sacrifice some of their profits, and reduce prices; if an increase of duty is about to be added to the tariff, importers anticipate it, by increased supplies, in advance; when the duty comes into operation, the home manufacturers expecting to have the market to themselves, make a larger stock of their goods, which, coming into the market with the over supply of the importers, overreach the demand, and prices fall; by the time this overstock is taken off, more capitalists have embarked in manufactures, on the faith of protection, and they increase the supply; which is further increased by the stimulus to increased exertion given to those in business before, by the security of the market; and the home competition itself, conduces to both an over supply and reduction of prices to the lowest rate consistent with fair profits in business; prices thus become more steady and reasonable than when subject to the caprice of importers. As an illustration of his argument, that the additional duty, while it puts more money in the treasury, cheapens prices, Mr. Evans gives an instance of its effect upon crockeryware. He says the scale of prices in Liverpool was fixed in 1814; since which, till the passage of our late tariff law, notwithstanding improvements and cheaper modes of manufacturing, it was not altered, but gradually a practice obtained of making large discounts on this scale of prices. In 1842 the discount was 45 per cent; so that, an American merchant buying to the amount by the scale of $100, was allowed 45 per cent discount, and he had to pay $55, which with 20 per cent duty, made the cost hence $66. But, since the act of 1842 went into operation, the discount in Liverpool has been altered to 50 per cent, so that, the same merchant, buying now, to the value by the scale of $100, has to pay $50, which, with 30 per cent duty makes $65, being $1 less than in 1842, although $4 more has been added to the revenue.

At length Mr. Evans comes to the very obvious inquiry, if protective duties do not add to prices, but on the contrary reduce them, why does the manufacturer require any protection? Is it any benefit to him? Mr. Evans says, "certainly it is; and in this way: he obtains the supply of the market; *he* sells, in preference to the foreign manufacturer; *his* goods are consumed, which they would not otherwise be, unless at prices he could not afford to sell for. . . . Suppose the consumption of the country requires 100 bales or any other given quantity. We can supply the whole —say at 5 cents a yard. England can do the same. If our manufacturers send their 100 bales into market, and the English send their 100 bales also, it is evident you have double the quantity which is wanted. The price must decline to 4 cents or 3 cents a yard. It is a losing business as well to them as to us. Who can endure this state of things longest? A

country where labor is cheap, or where it is dear? Where money and capital abound, or where they are comparatively scarce? Where the rate of interest is 2 per cent, or where it is 6 or 7 per cent? The result is inevitable. Our manufacturers cannot stand the competition, and must be destroyed. What happens then? The foreign producer has the market exclusively to himself. Prices advance and he takes good care to indemnify himself for the losses he has sustained, while engaged in the process of breaking down our establishments. . . . What are the American manufacturers thus thrown out of employment to do? . . . Where is the capital liberated by the operation, if not destroyed, to be employed? But above all, where is the labor to go? . . . It will be driven to increase the already excessive productions of agriculture, which are now so largely beyond the demand for them, that prices are exceedingly depressed."

Mr. Evans here takes up Mr. McDuffie's assumption that $40,000,000 more would be imported if the protective duty was taken off; and asks, who would be to consume these $40,000,000? Not the farmers, he says, for they would be impoverished by the loss of their market to the home manufacturers; nor would the foreign manufacturers be so benefited as to increase the consumption of raw cotton beyond the supply lost to the home market broken up. Mr. Evans thinks the consumers dependant on home manufactures exceedingly underrated by Mr. McDuffie; and he enumerates the various trades at which they are employed, for the purpose of showing that they form a large population in themselves, continually augmenting the wealth of the country. And he adds, "The benefit of the policy (protection) is not for the few but for the many. It puts labor in motion. It employs the many. What is most wanted and most necessary for a nation ambitious of attaining power, and wealth, and happiness, is profitable employment for its people."

Mr. Evans denies that manufacturers have made, or are making, large profits. He says the error into which Mr. McDuffie has fallen in this respect arises from taking his data from the census and newspaper paragraphs. He says that the profits of the capital vested in cotton factories from the commencement of the business in this country to the present time, have not averaged 6 per cent; and even now, they do not reach 12 per cent. He assumes that statements made about large profits, are based on peculiar cases, such as when the property, buildings, machinery, &c., of bankrupts, have been sold for a quarter of their cost; and, when in successful operation with this quarter capital, dividends are struck on it, instead of on the original cost. Also in cases where the profits arise from favorable speculations, forming no part of the business of manufacture.

Mr. Evans next takes Spackman's Statistics of Great Britain, to show that, of her enormous amount of manufactures ($865,000,000) she consumes, herself, three-fourths. Of $260,000,000 of cotton manufactures, she consumes $140,000,000. And yet her imports are only $320,000,000 from all parts of the world; of which, raw cotton form only 11 per cent, or $36,000,000. His argument from this data, is, that if her $860,000,000 of manufactures, require only $36,000,000 of our products, an addition of $40,000,000 to her manufactures would, proportionably, only require $1,666,000 more of our exports. Or, making the calculation as to her $260,000,000 of cotton manufactures; the addition of $40,000,000 for our market, would create a demand for only $5,000,000 of the raw export from us—taking $35,000,000 of her labor for $5,000,000 of our labor.

As to the charge that the act of 1842 is peculiarly unjust and injurious to the exporting states of the south, Mr. Evans maintains, that it can operate only in one of two ways; either by enhancing the price of what they buy, or diminishing the price of what they sell. He says he has already disposed of the first, by showing that the tendency of the act of 1842 has been to diminish the prices of those articles consumed by the south; and the price currents contradict the other, for the New Orleans price current for January of this year, contrasted with that of January, 1843, shows that the rise in the price of cotton has been from 75 to 80 per cent on the inferior qualities, 40 to 50 per cent on the middling, and 20 to 30 per cent on the best. He was just informed that some of the manufacturers in Massachusetts are paying 50 per cent more than they paid last year; so that, it would not be extraordinary if there should be a rise in the price of the manufactured fabrics. There had been also a rise, though not to the same extent, on tobacco. How then, he asks, can the act 1842 be called injurious to the south?

He considers it in vain for the south to say, all she wants is to be let alone, to pursue her own interests and policy in her own way. This cannot, in Mr. Evans's judgment, be allowed. The southern states, he says, must abide by the terms on which they entered the Union. They cannot be allowed to pursue their own policy to the detriment of other states. Their grievances orginate at home—in the excessive prices of former years, which, the senator from South Carolina now wants to bring about again—leading to over production, wild speculations in lands, slaves, and all sorts of extravagances. The older and worn out states cannot stand the competition with the younger and more fertile states; these are no inconsiderable causes of the discontent of the south. If the old southern states cannot stand this competition they must go to other sources of industry than growing cotton.

As to the alleged violation of the compromise act, Mr. Evans denies that the statute book gives any evidence of a *compromise* or an obligation more binding in relation to the act of 1833, than to any other law. It was then to be repealed or modified as circumstances required. What, he asks, was the last Congress to do? It found the revenue insufficient and declining, public credit prostrate, business at a stand, distress spreading, and general consternation pervading the country. It was their duty to do something for the relief of the country. They passed the tariff law of 1842, and whether it was the effect of that law or not, what had been predicted of it, came to pass; the revenue is restored, commerce revived, public credit placed on a firm foundation, the value of labor and property enhanced, confidence revived, and the cloud of dismay has disappeared.

In the foregoing sketch (very brief, no doubt,) of a speech which took five hours in the delivery, we necessarily have been compelled to pass over many points of argument and various illustrations which, if our space permitted, we would willingly present to our readers; but, we trust we have preserved enough of the main doctrine of protection to give a fair and candid view of its merits, as put forward with all the acknowledged ability of one of the most skilful and adroit debaters in the United States Senate.

Next day, Wednesday, 24th January, the general orders brought up the subject again, as the unfinished business; but Mr. Berrien rose to a point of order, which was, whether the discussion could proceed without

disposing of the question of jurisdiction. The remainder of the day's sitting was devoted to the consideration of this point; but, finally, it terminated in a concession that it was due to Mr. McDuffie to let him have an opportunity of answering Mr. Evans. Accordingly, by general assent, Monday, the 29th, was appointed for that purpose. When the subject was then resumed, Mr. McDuffie spoke for two hours in reply to Mr. Evans. In this reply, we find the following arguments are the most prominent and striking :—

Mr. McDuffie defines the inductive process of reasoning as laid down by Lord Bacon; and regrets that, while Mr. Evans professed to follow that method, he had neglected to do so, particularly with regard to the great elements of political economy established by the inductive process. Adam Smith, he says, who so successfully brought that process to bear on fundamental principles of political economy, had demonstrated that labor is at once the only source and the true measure of all those values which constitute individual or national wealth. Labor, then, is the source and measure of wealth. "This truth," observes Mr. McDuffie, "thoroughly realized in all its bearings, shows the impotence and folly of all those acts of legerdemain and contrivances of legislation, by which mankind have been deluded, and oppressed, and impoverished, from the days of the alchemists, who proposed to convert all metals into gold, to those of the restrictionists who now, and here, gravely propose to fetter the arm of labor, in order to render it more productive! And I could not but be struck with it at the time, as a singular coincidence, that, in juxtaposition with his commendation of Lord Bacon's system of reasoning, the senator should have laid it down as his own theory, that the true mode of relieving the poor was, not by the homely and common-sense process of reducing their taxes—for that, he said, would be 'indiscriminate charity'—but by the more compendious process of 'abolishing poverty.' Now, I must be excused for saying that this looks very much like legislative conjuration—an art certainly not derived from the *Novum Organum* of Francis Bacon, but rather from the crucible of Roger Bacon, the alchemist. It proposes to exorcise the phantom of poverty by a mere form of cabalistic words; as if the senator should introduce a bill, providing 'that, from and after the 1st day of July next, poverty be, and the same is hereby, abolished throughout the United States of America.' These are words of fair promise, but as impotent as they are fair. Poverty is no phantom, but a sad reality, which you can no more banish by legislative incantation, than Glendower could 'call up spirits from the vasty deep.' But, says the senator, impose high taxes, and give the people the means to pay them. Let me tell you, that, as a legislature, we have nothing to give, for we have not yet discovered the philosopher's stone. We are as poor as a church mouse. We have no *creative* power by which we can produce wealth, even to the amount of a blade of grass or grain of corn. That power belongs exclusively, under the blessing of God, to human labor. And it is the great and only legitimate function of government to secure to the people the free use and enjoyment of the products of that labor, undiminished by any burdens not absolutely necessary to support the government under an economical administration. But the senator affirms (and it is the whole burden of his argument) that the imposition of high taxes does, of itself, by some mysterious process which he has not disclosed, furnish the people not only with the means of paying those taxes, but also of ris-

ing from poverty to wealth. This, most assuredly, is a new theory of national wealth, now for the first time promulgated, and certainly not the offspring of the inductive system of philosophizing. Allow me, in a few words, to unveil the whole mystery. When the senator speaks of giving the *people* the means of paying taxes, he means the protected manufacturers and the people they employ, amounting to some 150,000, who receive a bounty, equal to the rate of the tax, upon the whole annual amount of their productions. And this bounty is raised by an equal amount of burdens imposed upon all the other classes of the people, amounting in number to 17,000,000; the whole operation confirming the great truth which I have so often repeated, that government cannot, in the very nature of things, give either money, high wages, or high profits, or any thing else, to one man, or one class of men, which it does not first take from another. But another of the elementary principles deduced by Adam Smith from common sense, and the general experience of mankind, was this: that it is the true interest of every man in a social state, to *buy* such commodities as it would cost him more labor to *make* than to *purchase*. For example: that, instead of every man attempting to unite in himself the various callings of farmer, hatter, shoemaker, tailor, blacksmith, and carpenter, under the absurd idea of being more independent by making everything at *home*, true policy dictates that these occupations should be separately pursued by each, and the productions of their several vocations exchanged for each other; that, in this way, each producing the commodity to which his means and capacity are best adapted, the aggregate result of their whole labor will be double the amount that could have been produced if each one had produced everything and bought nothing. By a very natural and obvious step in the process of inductive reasoning, these principles are extended to the members of the great society of nations. And it was, therefore, laid down as the very foundation of the philosophy of commerce, that it is the true policy of all nations to exchange, without restriction, their mutual surplus productions, each giving what it can produce cheapest, and receiving what it would cost more to produce at home than purchase abroad. And from all this it results as a corollary, that the best mode of promoting individual and national wealth, is for every individual, and every nation, to sell where they can get the highest price, and buy where they can buy cheapest."

Mr. McDuffie deduces from Mr. Evans's whole argument, two positions: first, that it is better to pay a high price for manufactures made at home, than a low price for those made abroad; second, that a high rate of duty on imports reduces their price, and a low rate enhances it. This, analyzed, Mr. McDuffie says, is to suppose we could throw upon foreign nations the burden of our taxation; but, if that could be done at all, two could play the same game, and foreign nations could in return throw the burden of their taxation on us. This would be a game in which the motto of both parties would be, "the hardest fend off;" and we should find in the end, as they say somewhere, that "the longest pole would knock down the persimmon." But nations do not possess this power of taxing each other; if they did it would soon end in the destruction of all commerce, and a fearful retrograde in the march of civilization. And, hence, the fact being obvious that our taxation must be raised off our own people, the question is, where the burden ultimately rests. Duties, continues Mr. McDuffie, are paid in the first instance by the importing mer-

chant; but as he is free to import or not, as his interest dictates, he would instantly cease to import if he could not indemnify himself for the duty paid; the duty then is transferred from him, in the price, to the retail merchant, who, in like manner, transfers it to the consumer, who finally has to pay it in the retail price, with all its accumulated interest. Whether it is the consumer or domestic producer that is considered as bearing the burden of protective duties, can be of no consequence, for, in either case, the result is the same. The class of imports upon which these duties are imposed, are exclusively paid for by the productions of the exporting states; and must, therefore, be regarded as the annual income of those states. Although they do not consume the whole of these imports, they consume an aggregate of imports and protected home-made goods, enhanced in price, by the import duties, considerably larger than the whole amount of these imports.

In relation to Mr. Evans's inquiry, where consumers are to be found for $40,000,000 more of imports? Mr. McDuffie retorts upon him his own adage, "give the people the means to consume and they will consume;" and, he says, the exporting states will consume them, because they will be enabled to pay for them; they can do it, too, with the proud consciousness of spending what is their own, derived from no monopoly, but from the blessing of God and their own labor. A reduction of duties to 20 per cent, 20 being taken off, not only adds so much to the means of consumption, but four times as much in respect to the whole country, because it takes off the enhanced price given by the indirect bounty to home manufactures. So that, by taking off 20 per cent of the present duty, the means of additional consumption would be given to the people of the United States amounting to $10,000,000.

Mr. McDuffie next examines the assertion made by Mr. Evans, that the tariff of 1842 had diminished the price of manufactures, and enhanced the price of raw cotton. Mr. McDuffie says the senator might as well attribute the recent rise in the price current of the cotton market in New Orleans to icebergs floating in the ocean, or meteors falling from the heavens, as to the tariff of 1842. He then proceeds to show that the falling off in the crop of cotton to supply the market abroad—the crop of 1842 having been 2,400,000 bales, while that of 1843 was but 1,800,000, (in his opinion only 1,600,000,) cotemporaneous with the opening of trade with China, concurred in having that effect on the market invariably resulting from a great change in the relation of supply and demand—a change quite sufficient, on the most natural and obvious grounds, to account for a rise of price even amounting to $12 per hundred on raw cotton. "The just conclusion," adds Mr. McDuffie, "is, not that the act of 1842 has raised the price of cotton from $8 to $10 a hundred, but that it has prevented it from going up to $12. Such is a fair sample of those threadbare sophisms which the manufacturers put off on their followers as *facts*. Yes, *facts;* and these are the only articles that the manufacturers can produce without protection, bidding defiance to all competition."

As to the alleged fall in the price of manufactures, produced by the tariff of 1842, Mr. McDuffie quoted a detailed statement showing that the prices of various manufactures have risen on an average 25 per cent since the passage of the act, and some of them as much as 60 per cent. He admits that Mr. Evans explained his meaning to be, that prices fell at *first*, but have since risen in consequence of the general prosperity pro-

duced by the act of 1842. But this explanation overthrows the theory and alleged "*fact*," that high duties reduce prices. Now, Mr. McDuffie accounts for the fall of prices, at first, in the following way, which, he says, is a secret not as generally known as it ought to be: the tariff was concocted by a set of speculating manufacturers, who infested the lobbies and committee-rooms of Congress, each having his separate scheme for making Congress legislate him into a fortune. Each in his turn pulled out of his pocket a list of the articles he was prepared to make to any extent, if Congress would only compel the people to pay him his own price for them. The calico-printer would say, I can get along with duties from 40 to 160 per cent, if you will place the highest rates on the coarsest fabrics. The manufacturer of cotton cords, velvets, fustians, and similar articles would say, if you will put 50 per cent to the duties imposed by the tariff of 1828, I can supply the wants of the country. And in like manner every sort of manufacture—window-glass, agricultural implements, wood-screws, and even brass pins—were foisted into this "act providing revenue," under rates of duty which are totally prohibitory. But, inquires Mr. McDuffie, what became of the lobby-patriots and financiers, as soon as the act passed? They hastened home to realize the fruits of their contrivances, but were caught in their own trap by producing an overstock for the market. As a natural result, prices for a short time declined, and, though some of the more prudent made large fortunes, others were ruined.

Mr. McDuffie next comes to one of the main pillars of Mr. Evans's argument, that the reviving trade and prosperity of the country is due to the tariff act. "Now," observes Mr. McDuffie, "I had thought that if there was any one opinion in which all statesmen and men of business would concur, it was, that the revival of trade and prosperity now in progress was owing to the restoration of our currency—furnishing a substantial basis for all the operations of trade—and the recovery of the country from the tremendous reaction which unavoidably resulted from an inflated currency, and the wild spirit of speculation to which it gave rise among all classes. But, while the senator from Maine contends that the tariff of 1842 has reduced prices, he in the next breath contends not the less earnestly that the high duties imposed by the act are necessary to save the domestic manufacturers from the competition of their foreign rivals. By what appears to me an incomprehensible confusion of ideas, he maintains that high duties reduce prices by increasing competition! Why, sir, the very genius of paradox can go no further. But, says the senator, the competition of our own manufacturers will reduce profits to the general average level. To what average level? To the average level of profits in England, where the senator himself told us that the interest of money was 2½ per cent, whereas it is 7 here, and the wages of labor equally disproportionate? To the average of the profits of the farmer and cotton-planter, the latter of which, I know, does not exceed 5 per cent, and I understand the former is still less? Not at all, sir. The senator means the average profits of those pampered monopolists themselves, whose dividends are swelled up to 12, 20, 35, and even 40 per cent, by forced contributions, extorted from the ill-paid labor of all other classes."

Mr. McDuffie thinks Mr. Evans asks, in a tone of offended patriotism, "when you send your cotton abroad to be exchanged for foreign manufactures, do you not employ *foreign* labor?" To which Mr. McDuffie replies

by asking, "when we employ the labor of Great Britain, France, and Germany, to manufacture what we require, do they not employ our labor to at least the same extent, in producing the staples of exportation? Is not commerce, in its very nature, an exchange of labor as well as of commodities, each party gaining by the exchange? The cheaper the foreign labor we employ, the more profitable is our foreign commerce—and this is the grievance of which the manufacturers complain!"

Mr. McDuffie next takes in hand Mr. Evans's argument that the price of the export staples will not be reduced by excluding the exchanges usually received for them, the price being governed by the law of supply and demand, the capacity of foreign countries to consume our staples fixing their demand for them. While Mr. McDuffie admits the last branch of the propositon as sound philosophy, he deduces from it a conclusion precisely the opposite of that drawn by Mr. Evans. He contends that the capacity of foreign countries to consume our staples is limited by their means of paying for them. Now, these means are precisely those manufactures which this protective policy proposes to exclude. On this ground he assumes that this anti-commercial policy has excluded $50,000,000 of foreign imports, precluding a co-extensive demand for our staple exports. Looking to raw cotton as the cheapest material in the world for general clothing, and its recent introduction in France, Germany, continental Europe, and particularly into China, he says, the imagination can scarcely conceive the extent of the demand which would be created for this great staple by throwing off from our commerce the incubus of the protective policy. The people of Great Britain now consume cotton manufactures to the annual amount of $150,000,000; and if the other nations of Europe would consume anything like the same proportion, all that vast region extending on the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico from the Potomac to the Rio del Norte, would not be adequate to supply the demand. "This bright vision, however," observes Mr McDuffie, "can be realized only by a system of unshackled exchanges with foreign nations. Leave trade to regulate itself, industry to select its own pursuits, and commerce to find out its own channels, and we shall never have any complaint of overproduction, to which the senator is pleased to ascribe the decay of our prosperity in the exporting states. No, sir; there can scarcely occur such a thing as over-production under a system of free trade. This is always the offspring of legislative restrictions, damming up the natural currents of trade. There cannot be greater absurdity than to talk about over-production, when there is a just equilibrium between the various productions of industry, which free trade only can maintain. Such an idea would imply that a country can have too great an abundance of all the necessaries and comforts of life!"

Having thus answered Mr. Evans in detail, Mr. McDuffie proceeds to review the general spirit and bearing of his arguments, taken as a whole, which, he says, turn upon the assumption that the prosperity of the country means the prosperity of the manufacturers; that domestic industry means manufacturing industry; that the only branch of domestic industry which adds to the national wealth, is that which requires a perpetual system of government bounties to sustain it; and, finally, that the taxes imposed upon all other classes to raise these indirect bounties, are not burdens, but national blessings! "These," observes Mr. McDuffie, "certainly are bold assumptions; but they are the natural offspring of despotic

power under all its forms. When Napoleon Bonaparte was at the height of his imperial greatness, he exclaimed, in the language of infatuated despotism, 'I am the state.' And so these great manufacturing monopolists, feeling that they control the powers of this government, so as to make all other interests of the country subservient and tributary to their own, stand up in their own right and that of some 200,000 or 300,000 operatives, and, in effect, exclaim, 'We are the United States!'"

Mr. McDuffie, in tracing the causes of this state of things, considers this country peculiarly, if not unfortunately circumstanced, with regard to the question of free trade. England, with a dense population and small territory, has homogeneous interests, and would enjoy free trade but for a landed interest, held principally by an hereditary aristocracy. Yet there the hand of oppression, laid upon any of the great interests of commerce or manufactures, would produce an instant vibration from one extremity of the country to the other. "But we," observes Mr. McDuffie, "have a common government, extending over a continent, and embracing not only various interests, but *conflicting* interests, separated by geographical lines and distinguished by different civil institutions. Our ancestors, aware of this, wisely limited the powers conferred upon this government to our foreign relations, to the means of protecting our rights against the aggressions of other countries, and to 'the regulation of foreign commerce,' with a view to preserve, extend, and nourish it, and not to cripple or destroy it. And this was the avowed purpose for which the first federal convention was called at Annapolis. But, sir, when the powers of this government are perverted from their legitimate objects to the 'regulation of the whole industry of the country'—when you attempt to prescribe the same law for promoting interests that are strictly antagonist, so far as they are affected by that law, you attempt what, in the nature of things, is impossible. God himself has adopted no such rule in the government of the world. His laws are wisely adapted to the various climates and latitudes of the earth; and it would be well if this government, extending over so many sovereign states and jarring interests, would imitate this divine example. But when you apply this Procrustean system to all the interests of the country, stretching one and mutilating another, until they come up to the standard measure of legislative wisdom, how absurd is it to say (as it is the fashion of the manufacturers to say) 'the interests of the farmers, the planters, and the manufacturers of the east, north, south, and west, are all the same?' To be sure, it is by no natural law of trade, but by your unjust and partial legislation, that they are brought into conflict; but the conflict is not the less real on that account. If the great staples of the south and west were equally diffused over the north and east, and the manufactures of the latter, in like manner, diffused over the former, do you suppose this system would stand for a single year? I do not believe it would command ten votes in this body. Or, consider this whole country, with its now conflicting interests, as an estate belonging to a single proprietor, would these interests stand in conflict any longer? Would such a proprietor have the consummate folly to cut off the imports of foreign manufactures from one branch of his estate, that he might supply their place, at an increased cost of 40 per cent, by another branch? Sir, it is in vain to disguise the fact that it is because the interests of the United States are not homogeneous, that this protective system has grown up to its present gigantic stature. If the interests of

the people, like the government, were a unit, and the question was, how to produce the greatest aggregate income for the whole, not a man could be found so absurd as to propose the exclusion of foreign manufactures because they are cheap, and substitute domestic manufactures at higher prices, as a means of increasing the national income."

To illustrate the injustice of the protective system towards the producing and exporting sections of the Union, Mr. McDuffie puts a suppositionary case, that the Union were peaceably dissolved, and three separate confederacies were formed, one consisting of the middle and eastern states, another of the western and northwestern states, and the third of the southern and southwestern states—denominated respectively, the manufacturing, farming, and planting confederacies; and he then inquires what would be the obvious policy of each confederacy on the questions of free trade and protection?

As Mr. McDuffie's views on this supposed case, are exceedingly elaborate and necessarily local, it is not in our power, nor, indeed, is it necessary in support of his argument, to devote sufficient space to a summary of them. It will be enough to say, that he comes to the conclusion that the planting confederacy would be the exporting and importing states, presenting an unexampled prosperity and advancement to wealth and happiness; that the farming confederation would exchange its products with the south for such imports as it might want, participating in its prosperity; but that the present manufacturing confederation would lose its business and commerce, and become a desert waste. It would also lose the immense government patronage bestowed upon it in the shape of partial disbursements, and be left in its native sterility, to sink into poverty and desolation.

In conclusion, Mr. McDuffie warns the manufacturers and their partisans that there is a point beyond which oppression will not be endured, even by the vilest slaves or most loyal citizens.

Mr. Evans next obtained the floor, in reply to Mr. McDuffie; but the discussion, after some efforts to limit its duration, was postponed. Owing to other business interfering from day to day, it was not again resumed till Monday, the 5th of February.

We shall continue an impartial synopsis of the debate in the next number of this Magazine.

Art. II.—THE COMMERCE OF BOSTON.

The city of Boston, from the amount of its mercantile enterprise, may be properly denominated the commercial emporium of New England. The capital city of a state containing, according to the census of 1840, a population of 737,699, it is situated near the centre of an extensive manufacturing region whose thousand hills afford the evidences of substantial industry, and whose waterfalls almost everywhere resound with the clattering of machinery. Its port sustains the largest tonnage of any of our northern states, and the flags of the principal commercial nations of Europe wave, from time to time, above its docks. Although destitute of deep and extensive navigable rivers running from the interior to the seaboard, the energy of the people of Massachusetts has supplied this deficiency by the con-

struction of iron roads, which cross the state at numerous points, intersecting the principal marts of trade, and opening cheap, safe, and convenient lines of transportation from the remotest villages within the bounds of the state to its own depots, and thence to the principal cities of the north, the south, and the west, both upon the Atlantic coast and upon the lakes. The hardy enterprise of the seaport towns has poured into its storehouses the products of the fishery, and its harbor is the principal entrepot of shipping, and the place of export in this quarter. Possessing a population of 93,383, according to the last census, and now containing, with the adjoining settlements, a population varying not far from 130,000, the city is the main distributor of the great bulk of her own inports into the interior of the most densely settled portion of the United States. We propose, in the present article, to exhibit, in as accurate form as our materials will permit, the general character of this commerce, its channels of operation, and the causes which now bear upon its prosperous growth.

Although agriculture, as a science, is advanced to a more cultivated state within the limits of Massachusetts than in any other portion of our country, the limited extent of its domain, and the comparative sterility of the soil, as well as the density of its population, have prevented the raising of a surplus of agricultural products. The principal staples of her commercial export are accordingly derived from her manufactures and her fisheries. In manufactures the state stands doubtless before any other in the Union, considering the amount of manufactured articles produced. She makes more than one-third of the whole woollen goods manufactured in the Union, and more than half of all the cotton goods. In the manufacture of boots, shoes, soap, candles, hardware, refined sugar, paper, powder, and firearms, she also stands first; and second only, in the manufacture of machinery, drugs, paints, dyes, furniture, cordage, hats, caps, musical instruments, and silk. In the production of glass, leather, flax, and salt, she stands the third. She owns one-sixth of the manufacturing capital of the country, and about one-fourth of its tonnage. Of the tonnage of the vessels built in the United States in 1841, one-fourth was built in Massachusetts—she furnishing about one-third of its registered seamen. It appears from the statistics of Massachusetts, published by order of the legislature, that in 1837, the annual value of her products was $85,742,927, consisting mainly of articles manufactured within her own limits, including the value of $7,592,290 produced by the cod, whale, and mackerel fishery. We have enumerated these items merely to show what staples are furnished by the industry of the people of Massachusetts to the export trade of the port of Boston.

We now proceed to exhibit the amount of commerce actually carried on in this port as it appears with accuracy from the returns of the custom-house. As introductory thereto, we would allude briefly to the arrangements that have been made in its harbor for the prosecution of its commercial enterprises. The harbor itself is safe and easy of access, affording a depth of water sufficient to float any ship that navigates the ocean, and is sheltered from the storms of the main sea. But its principal advantage for the security of vessels, and it is one that distinguishes this port from other principal ports of our country, are its numerous docks, which are constructed with solid strength, and run far up into the city. These are bordered by continuous blocks of warehouses, either of brick or Quincy granite, which have an appearance of remarkable uniformity, solidity, and

permanence. By the arrangement of these docks, the numerous vessels, whose tracery of spars and cordage line them on either side, may unship their cargoes at the very doors of the bordering warehouses, and receive in return their supplies for foreign ports with the utmost security and dispatch. Indeed, the substantial appearance of these warehouses, is quite similar to the mercantile houses in the other parts of the city, which have a like solidity and massiveness in the materials of which they are built, as well as in their construction.

According to the report of the secretary of the treasury, which, it is well known, is made up from the returns of the collectors of the several districts, the total imports of Massachusetts amounted to the sum of $17,986,433, and the total exports to $9,807,110, during the year 1842; and it is probably safe to allege that a considerable portion of this trade is carried on from the port of Boston. The tonnage belonging to the people of Boston is not, however, altogether confined to her own port, but it is well known that one-third of the commerce of New York, from the year 1839 to 1842, was carried on either upon Massachusetts' account, or in Massachusetts' vessels; and the ships of Massachusetts, it is equally well known, transact a considerable portion of the commerce of New York, particularly in the East India trade. From the report of the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Spencer, it appears that the tonnage of Boston, during the year ending the 30th of September, 1842, was as follows:—

Registered tonnage, 157,116.70 95ths; enrolled and licensed tonnage, 36,385.48 95ths: the total tonnage being 193,502.23 95ths. There were also 38 vessels here built within that year.

We also here subjoin, from the same source, a statement of the number of American and foreign vessels, with their tonnage and crews, that entered the district of Boston during the same period:—

Number of American vessels, 849; tons, 197,48; crews of men, 8,029; boys, 361. Number of foreign vessels, 870; tons, 78,885; men, 4,941. Total American and foreign vessels that entered, 1,719; tons, 276,366; men, 12,970; boys, 361.

American and foreign vessels that cleared from the port of Boston, during the same period:—

Number of American vessels, 713; tons, 146,828; men, 6,637. Number of foreign vessels, 861; tons, 78,588; men, 5,142.

The above returns give to Boston a total tonnage and number of seamen, amounting to 1,574 American and foreign vessels cleared, with a tonnage of 225,416, and 11,779 seamen.

During the following year, 1843, it appears from authentic returns, that have been procured at the collector's office, that the registered tonnage of Boston during that year, was 169,901; enrolled and licensed, 31,422; and that there were 36 vessels built within the district during that year, there having been employed in the vessels entering the port, 12,458 seamen, and in those that were cleared from the port, 11,635.

We subjoin, however, a more particular statement of the arrivals in Boston in 1843, for which we are indebted to the Massachusetts Register:—

	Arrivals.				
	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.
Coastwise,.....	102	158	683	3,860	141
Foreign,.....	127	153	524	946	....
Total,.....	207	311	1,207	4,806	141

Of these arrivals, 1 ship, 6 barks, 109 brigs, and 724 schooners were British; 1 bark and 1 brig were Swedish; 1 brig was Bremen; 2 brigs Russian; 1 brig was Spanish; 1 was French; and 2 barks and 2 schooners were Sicilian.

The clearances for the same period, were as follows:—

CLEARANCES.

	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.
Coastwise,.....	159	160	555	1,548	75
Foreign,.....	78	144	477	883	...
Total,.....	237	309	1,032	2,431	75

Of these foreign clearances, 1 ship, 6 barks, 103 brigs, 744 schooners were British; 1 bark and 1 brig were Swedish; 1 brig was Bremen; 2 brigs were Russian; 1 brig was Spanish; 1 brig was French; and 2 barks and 2 brigs were Sicilian.

We have thus given an exhibit of the commerce of Boston, in a summary form, in order to show the various species of vessels which from time to time enter its port, with their number; but before going into a more particular view of the subject we would subjoin the following table including the value of the imports and exports of Massachusetts for a series of eleven years, ending in 1841. To the granite and ice formerly constituting a prominent staple of export from the port of Boston, is now added a large amount of flour and other agricultural products of the west exported in British vessels:—

MASSACHUSETTS.

Date.	Value of imports.	Value of exp'ts.	Date.	Value of imports.	Value of exp'ts.
1831,.....	$14,269,056	$7,733,763	1837,.....	$19,984,668	$9,728,190
1832,.....	18,118,900	11,993,768	1838,.....	13,300,925	9,104,862
1833,.....	19,940,901	9,983,123	1839,.....	19,385,233	9,276,085
1834,.....	17,672,129	10,148,820	1840,.....	16,513,858	10,186,261
1835,.....	19,800,373	10,043,790	1841,.....	20,318,003	11,487,343
1836,.....	25,081,462	10,380,346			

We have before remarked that the city of Boston is the distributor into the interior of a densely settled portion of the country, of those staples of commerce which are imported from abroad, and it has also come to be a prominent consumer, distributor, and exporter of a large amount of agricultural products received from the west.*

The manufactures of cotton goods in the state of Massachusetts, and especially in the region within the immediate vicinity of Boston, it is well known, supplies a considerable portion of its export trade. Although the total manufactures of the United States consume but about 325,000 bales out of our total crop of 2,378,000 bales, yet the working up of the former quantity is enabled to produce a vast amount of manufactured goods, an amount nearly sufficient to supply the consumption of the country. Those cotton goods have been formerly exported to a considerable extent to South America and the East Indies; and the opening of the ports of China to our own ships, upon liberal terms, will doubtless greatly increase our exports into that quarter. We perceive by a recent number of the Boston Shipping List, that the principal exports of domestics from

* For a variety of tables exhibiting the amount of several of the principal articles received at the port of Boston, for a series of years down to December, 1843, inclusive, see Merchants' Magazine for March, 1844, Vol. X., No. 3, pp. 287, 288, 289.

the port of Boston, are to the East Indies, the West Indies, Mexico, South America, Turkey, Smyrna, Central America, Hayti, the South Pacific, Canton, and Honduras. Although a late exportation of cotton goods into Canton was attended with an alleged loss, still that particular consignment is stated to have been made with but little care, as the goods were of inferior quality. The negotiation of favorable arrangements with the Chinese empire, however, now pending, placing the admission of our own ships into their ports upon the same footing with those of the British, will doubtless open a more extended market for the cotton goods of our own country, as well as our other domestic products. In order to supply the manufactures of cotton goods, within the vicinity of Boston, it is obvious that the great bulk of the cotton to be worked up in those establishments must be carried into her own port; and to show the actual amount thus brought in, we are enabled to subjoin the following table exhibiting the importations of cotton into the port of Boston for the period of fourteen years, commencing with 1830, and ending in 1843, and the places from which it is brought. As the cotton thus imported is distributed into the interior by railroad and other conveyances, and as nearly all is consumed in the neighboring factories, the rapid increase of manufactures may be judged from these returns:—

IMPORTATION OF COTTON INTO BOSTON, FOR FOURTEEN YEARS.

Year.	From N. Orleans. *Bales.*	From Charleston. *Bales.*	From Savannah. *Bales.*	From Mobile. *Bales.*	From Florida. *Bales.*	From Natchez. *Bales.*
1830,.....	20,609	8,605	9,176	3,995	70	.....
1831,.....	30,306	7,159	5,668	6,055	479	.....
1832,.....	25,693	15,470	9,916	7,213	58	.....
1833,.....	29,301	8,761	6,699	5,781	106	.....
1834,.....	27,342	14,474	6,648	9,593	41	.....
1835,.....	43,259	13,453	6,794	14,019	868	.....
1836,.....	37,908	17,868	8,879	12,680	2,813	.....
1837,.....	39,523	18,835	10,922	7,973	3,633	.....
1838,.....	44,523	14,821	11,123	7,821	10,313	2,637
1839,.....	48,103	9,349	6,306	14,593	9,186	3,798
1840,.....	65,070	22,889	9,137	19,944	14,499	3,278
1841,.....	72,966	12,228	5,721	28,100	10,466	950
1842,.....	56,343	19,586	11,334	19,204	11,201	253
1843,.....	73,022	16,739	15,565	24,861	20,704	.....
Total,..	613,968	200,237	123,888	181,832	84,437	10,916

Year.	From New York. *Bales.*	From N. Carolina. *Bales.*	From Virginia. *Bales.*	From Philad'a. *Bales.*	From Baltimore. *Bales.*	From oth'r places. *Bales.*	Total. *Bales.*
1830,.....	1,664	1,202	272	345	.....	265	46,203
1831,.....	978	1,978	660	171	.....	347	53,810
1832,.....	679	467	279	.....	23	213	60,011
1833,.....	1,584	1,231	.....	253	99	324	54,139
1834,.....	1,759	199	217	.....	18	21	60,312
1835,.....	1,596	404	74	.....	.....	172	80,709
1836,.....	1,984	369	194	15	.....	175	82,885
1837,.....	1,146	128	90	46	20	368	82,684
1838,.....	4,383	115	344	9	21	528	96,636
1839,.....	2,826	38	112	.....	.....	50	94,361
1840,.....	3,296	38	118	183	.....	257	138,709
1841,.....	495	33	2	162	45	692	131,860
1842,.....	891	42	50	274	76	416	119,670
1843,.....	505	117	10	25	1	74	151,523
Total,..	23,795	6,331	2,422	1,483	303	3,900	1,253,512

The most direct and bulky species of business transacted with Boston in connection with the cotton manufacture, is that with the city of Lowell. The importance of this city as a manufacturing mart, and the influence which it exerts upon the commerce of Boston, induce a particular description. With a population of about 28,000, it is essentially a manufacturing city, as little else besides the business connected with its manufacturing establishments is performed within its limits. On the incorporation of the town of Lowell, in 1826, it contained a population of only 3,000. Ten years afterwards, namely, in 1836, the city charter was granted, when it had about 18,000, since which time it has advanced to its present prosperous condition. The direct communication which it possesses with Boston, by means of its well constructed railroad, furnishing an avenue for the transportation of its bulky manufactured products, as well as the cotton to be worked up, and also of passengers, renders it of great value to the commerce of the city. The admirable management of the manufacturing establishments themselves, and the thrifty and respectable condition of those who are employed in them, engaged in that industry which is an honor to all, and a disgrace to no one, constitute it a model for such institutions elsewhere. A periodical is in fact here issued, conducted by individuals employed at the looms, that would do exceeding credit to any intellectual community. We here subjoin, in a summary form, the condition of those establishments at the present time.

The following statistics of the manufactures of Lowell, (Mass.,) Jan. 1, 1844, are compiled from authentic sources. There are eleven companies or corporations, viz: the Lock and Canal, Merrimack, Hamilton, Appleton, Lowell, Middlesex, Suffolk, Tremont, Lawrence, Boot, and Massachusetts. We give statistics of each company, as follows:—

Lock and Canal, incorporated 1792, commenced operations 1822, capital stock, $600,000; has two shops, smithey and furnace; employs 500 males; manufactures 1,225 tons wrought and cast iron per annum, consisting of machinery, railroad cars, and engines; and consumes 15,000 bushels charcoal, 200 chaldrons smiths' coal, 400 tons hard, 200 cords of wood, and 2,300 gallons of oil per annum.

Merrimack, incorporated in 1822, commenced operations in 1823, capital stock, $2,000,000; has 5 mills and print-works, 40,384 spindles, and 1,300 looms; employs 1,250 females, and 550 males; makes 250,000 yards of cotton per week, and uses 150 bales of cotton in the same time, or 56,000 lbs.; yards dyed and printed, 210,000. The kind of goods manufactured by this company are prints and sheetings, No. 22 to 40. Consumes per annum, of anthracite coal, 5,000 tons; of wood, 200 cords; of oil, 13,000 gallons.

Hamilton, incorporated 1825, commenced operations same year, capital stock, $1,000,000; has 3 mills and print-works, 21,248 spindles, and 590 looms; employs 650 females, and 250 males; makes 100,000 yards per week; uses 100 bales, or 42,000 lbs.; prints and dyes 63,000 yards. The kinds of goods manufactured are prints, flannels, sheetings, &c., from No. 14 to 20. Consumes 3,000 tons anthracite coal, 500 cords wood, and 6,500 gallons oil.

Appleton, incorporated in 1828, commenced operations the same year, with a capital of $600,000; has 2 mills, 11,776 spindles, and 400 looms; employs 340 females, and 65 males; manufactures 100,000 yards per week; uses 90 bales of cotton, or 36,000 lbs. The kind of goods manufactured by this company are sheetings and shirtings. Consumes 300 tons anthracite coal, and 3,440 gallons of oil.

Lowell, incorporated 1828, and commenced operations the same year, with a capital stock of $600,000; has 2 mills, one cotton and one carpet; has 6,000 cotton spindles, besides wool; 152 cotton looms, 50 power carpet, and 40 hand-looms; employs 400 females, and 200 males; manufactures per week 2,500 yards; carpets, 150; rugs, 85,000; uses 110 bales, and 40,000 lbs. of cotton wrought in do. The kind of goods manufactured are carpets, rugs, and negro cloth. Consumes 500 tons of anthracite coal, 500 cords of wood, 4,000 gallons olive oil, and 4,000 gallons sperm oil per annum.

Middlesex, incorporated in 1830, commenced operations same year, capital stock, $750,000; has 2 mills, and 2 dye-houses; 7,200 spindles; 37 looms for broadcloth, and

122 for cassimere; employs 550 females, and 250 males; makes per week 9,000 yards cassimere, 1,800 broadcloth; consumes 1,000,000 lbs. wool, and 3,000,000 teasels; uses 600 tons of anthracite coal, and 1,500 cords of wood; 15,000 gallons lard oil, and 5,000 gallons sperm oil.

SUFFOLK, incorporated 1830, and commenced operations in 1832; capital stock, $600,000; has 2 mills, 11,776 spindles, and 352 looms; employs 340 females, and 70 males; makes 90,000 yards of drillings per week; uses 90 bales of cotton, or 32,000 lbs.; consumes 300 tons of anthracite coal, 70 cords of wood, and 3,500 gallons of oil.

TREMONT, incorporated 1830, commenced operations in 1832; capital stock, $600,000; has 2 mills, 11,520 spindles, and 409 looms; employs 360 females, and 70 males; makes 115,000 yards of sheeting and shirting per week; consumes 75 bales, or 30,000 lbs. of cotton, per week; uses 250 tons of anthracite coal, and 60 cords of wood, per annum.

LAWRENCE, incorporated in 1830, and commenced operations in 1833, capital stock, $1,500,000; has 5 mills, 32,640 spindles, and 950 looms; employs 900 females, and 170 males; makes 210,000 yards per week, and consumes 180 bales, or 65,000 lbs. of cotton, per week. The goods manufactured are printed cloths, sheetings and shirtings, Nos. 14 to 30. Consumes 650 tons of anthracite coal, 120 cords of wood, and 8,217 gallons of oil per annum.

BOOT, incorporated 1835, commenced operations in 1836, capital stock, $1,200,000; has 4 mills, 31,524 spindles, and 910 looms; employs 780 females, and 130 males; makes 180,000 yards per week; uses 145 bales, or 59,000 lbs. of cotton, per week. The goods made are drillings, shirtings, and printing cloth. Consumes 750 tons of anthracite coal, 70 cords of wood, and 7,100 gallons of oil per annum.

MASSACHUSETTS, incorporated in 1839, commenced operations in 1840; capital stock, $1,200,000; has 4 mills, 27,008 spindles, and 882 looms; employs 725 females, and 160 males; makes 260,000 yards per week, and consumes 200 bales, or 80,000 lbs. of cotton. The goods made are sheetings, shirtings, and drillings. Consumes 750 tons of anthracite coal, 70 cords of wood, and 7,100 gallons of oil per annum.

Capital invested as above,.....	$10,650,000
Cloth, per annum,.....yards	74,141,600
Cotton consumed,.....lbs.	22,880,000
Assuming half to be upland, and half New Orleans and Alabama, the consumption in bales, 361 lbs. each, is.....	58,240
A pound of cotton averages 3 1-5 yards.	
100 lbs. cotton will produce 89 lbs. cloth.	
Average wages of females, clear of board,.....per week	$1 75
" of males, " .....per day	70
Medium produce of a loom, No. 14 yarn, per day,.....yards	44 to 45.
" " " 30 "	39
Average per spindle, per day,.....yards	1 1-10
Average amount of wages paid,.....per month	$150,000
Consumption of starch per annum,.....lbs.	800,000
Consumption of flour for starch in mills, print-works, and bleachery, per annum,.....bbls.	4,000
Consumption of charcoal per annum,.....bush.	600,000

The Lock and Canal machine-shop, included among the 33 mills, can furnish machinery complete for a mill of 5,000 spindles in four months; and lumber and materials are always at command, with which to build or rebuild a mill in that time, if required. When building mills, the Lock and Canal Company employ, directly and indirectly, from 1,000 to 1,200 hands.

To the above-named principal establishments, may be added the Lowell Water-Proofing, connected with the Middlesex Manufacturing Company; the extensive powder-mills of O. M. Whipple, Esq.; the Lowell Bleachery, with a capital of $50,000; flannel-mill, blanket-mill, batting-mill, paper-mill, card and whip factory, planing-machine, reed-machine, foundry, grist and saw-mills; together employing about 500 hands, and a capital of $500,000.

Another important source from which the commerce of Boston is derived, and, indeed, the branch of commerce in which the state of Massachusetts takes the lead, is the fisheries. This fact is doubtless owing to the circumstance of its proximity to the fishing grounds of the northern part of our coast, the banks of Newfoundland, and other fishing stations.

To the ordinary observer of the character of the business transacted at the docks, it is evident that the fishery constitutes an important part of its commercial enterprise. The populous towns that are scattered along the neighboring coast, from its port to Cape Cod, and the mouth of the Penobscot, have each a large number of vessels employed in the cod, herring, and mackarel fisheries; and these fishing vessels sail from those ports to the various fishing stations, not only upon our own coast, but even to the banks of Newfoundland, returning to pour into the port of Boston the products of this most important branch of our maritime enterprise. We may here, without exaggeration, commend the prudence, the perseverance, the morality, the hardihood, the courage, and the patriotism, of the fishermen of New England, who have manned our merchant ships, carried our flag to the remotest part of the globe, returning with stores of wealth to our own ports, from every foreign clime, and who have sustained our naval prowess with signal honor and in numerous actions, both upon the ocean and the lakes. From the port of Boston, the products of the cod, the herring, and the mackarel fishery, are distributed not only into various parts of the interior, but coastwise to the prominent ports of the frontier, even to the mouth of the Mississippi, a considerable portion being exported abroad.

In order to exhibit, in some measure, the importance of the fishery to the commerce of the port, and the extent to which it is carried on from the towns upon the coast, we may remark that of the 773,947 quintals of smoked and dried fish, the total product of the Union, the state of Massachusetts furnished 389,715 quintals. Of the total product of 472,359 barrels of pickled fish, the total product of the United States, Massachusetts furnished 124,755 barrels. Of the 4,764,708 gallons of spermaceti oil, the product of the United States, Massachusetts supplied 3,630,973 gallons; and of the whale and fish oils furnished by the United States, and amounting to 7,536,778 gallons, Massachusetts alone contributed 3,364,725 gallons. A more prominent fact may be stated, that, of the $16,429,623, the capital invested throughout the United States in the fisheries, Massachusetts alone supplies $11,725,850 of that capital.*

But it is in the India trade of Boston, that she exceeds any other port of the United States, not excepting even the city of New York. It appears that, during the year 1843, eight of the arrivals at the latter port consisted of ships belonging to Boston merchants, while others were freighted on Boston account. It is also well known that eight vessels belonging to the port of Boston were cleared from the harbor of New York. The East India trade, formerly prosecuted to a considerable extent from the port of Salem, has been diverted to other ports, and Boston now holds the larger share. We have before us authenticated memoranda of the vessels which arrived and cleared from the port of Boston, for ports in the East Indies and ports beyond Cape Horn, during the year 1843. There were during that period, at this port, twenty-eight arrivals, and from the following places, namely: eleven from Calcutta, nine from Manilla, two from Canton, one from Singapore, two from the Sandwich Isl-

* For the purpose of showing the amount of the enterprise connected with the mackerel fishery, in the towns along the coast of Massachusetts, we refer the reader to a table in Vol. X., No. 3, for March, 1844, of the Merchants' Magazine, p. 290. This table, it will be seen, exhibits the number of barrels inspected in Massachusetts, in 1843, and also the total amount in each year, from 1831 to 1843, inclusive.

ands, one from California, and two from Valparaiso. During the same year, there were cleared at Boston twelve vessels for Canton, fifteen for Calcutta, four for Sumatra, six for Manilla, two for Batavia, one for Singapore, four for the Sandwich Isles, one for Madras and Calcutta, one for Cape Town and Manilla, one for Hong-Kong, (China,) two for the northwest coast, via Europe, one for Cape Town and Calcutta, one for Cape Town, one for New South Wales and Manilla, seven for Valparaiso, one for Batavia and Manilla, one for Batavia and Canton, two for California, one for Sumatra via Amsterdam, one for Montevideo and Batavia, and one for Manilla and Mauritius, the total number of clearances to those ports being sixty-six. This amount of the India and Pacific trade with Boston, is doubtless a source of considerable wealth, while it employs a large amount of capital and enterprise.

The extended field which appears to be opening for our commerce in the Chinese empire, and the public interest that has recently been directed to that country, would seem to call for particular remark, since it may be regarded as a future profitable market for our cotton goods, as well as other of our products. The first export of cotton goods to China was made in 1827, and it consisted chiefly of yarn, amounting in value to about $9,000 or $10,000, since which time the trade has gradually increased. As late as 1841, it amounted to $173,775, the succeeding year it had advanced to the value of $497,318, and in 1843 it was estimated in Boston that it had reached $2,000,000 during that year. From returns now before us, it appears that, in 1842, there were exported from the United States to China, goods to the value of $737,509, much the greater part of which consisted in the product of the cotton manufactures, it comprising nearly one-half of the total export. The imports during that year amounted in value to $8,790,735. They consisted of teas, coffee, and other articles, the balance of the trade with that government during the year being a little more than $8,000,000. The principal imports of China to this country, tea, silks, and nankeens, are in great demand in most markets, and if, as we have reason to hope, favorable negotiations should be effected with that government, by the diplomatic agent of the United States, Mr. Cushing, who is now, as it is understood, awaiting the action of the Chinese court, we may hope for the prosecution of a profitable trade with that empire. We see no reason why our own trade with her ports should not be placed upon the same footing with that of England. If we sustain any competition with a foreign power in the Chinese markets, it will doubtless be mainly with England. England, like the United States, produces, in the largest amount, those articles that are required by the people of China, and we believe that the prospects opened in that country for foreign commerce will be attended with manifold advantages to those who may be employed in its prosecution.

Another prominent feature of Massachusetts enterprise, bearing directly upon the commercial prosperity of its capital city, is the construction of numerous railroads running through almost every quarter of the state, intersecting its most important towns and manufacturing villages, and leading into the principal cities, both at the north, the south, the east, and the west. These railroads, to Massachusetts, supply the place of navigable rivers and canals. They furnish cheap, safe, and rapid lines of transportation, both for goods and passengers. They converge, for the greater

part, in the city of Boston. They furnish an avenue to distribute the imports of its foreign commerce into the interior, and to transport the raw cotton required in the manufacturing establishments to their respective places of deposit, as well as to carry the manufactured goods wrought in the centre of the state to their proper markets, and to bring the agricultural products of the west into their places of shipment and export upon the seaboard. The enterprise of the state has, moreover, accomplished a considerable portion of the gigantic work, now completed—a contiuous line of railroad, 522 miles in length, extending from Boston to Buffalo, upon the shore of Lake Erie.

It is stated, and we do not doubt the accuracy of the statement, that the New England railroads have paid upon an average from 6 to 8 per cent, since their completion; and constructed, as they have been, to perform the business already existing, and not mere anticipated business, they will doubtless advance prosperously under the influence of trade, which from the eminent advantages which they afford must be diverted into this direction. A project is now agitated with much spirit, directed to the extension of the Fitchburg railroad across the states of New Hampshire and Vermont, to Burlington, upon the borders of Lake Champlain. This work will doubtless soon be completed, and will draw to Boston a considerable part of the trade of the Champlain canal, and a portion of Lower Canada. The road itself passes through a very productive quarter of the state of Massachusetts, rich in various species of manufacture, water-power, wood, and timber, now deprived of convenient markets, and will exercise, when completed, a very important influence upon the commerce of Boston. On the completion of this road, the proprietors of the Cunard line of steamers, we perceive it stated, design running their line boats directly between Liverpool and Boston, and under those circumstances, the railroad will bring the New England metropolis within fifteen hours of Montreal. The work will also take the produce of a part of the valley of the Connecticut, and the counties on Lake Champlain, and the south shore of a part of the St. Lawrence cheaper, to Boston, than to any other seaport.*

In connection with the commerce of Boston, it may be proper to exhibit the capital invested in its banks: for, after all, money is as essential to the vigor of trade, as the vital fluid to the health of the human body, and moneyed transactions are closely interwoven with every department of mercantile enterprise.

CAPITAL INVESTED IN BOSTON BANKS.

Names of Bk's.	Capital, Oct. 1843.	Val. of cap. according to av. dividends per annum, for ten years.		Change in the value of the capital in 1842 and 1843.	
		October, 1841.	*October*, 1843.	*Improvement.*	*Depreciation.*
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Atlantic,.....	500,000	441,666 66⅔	433,333 33⅓	.....	8,333 33⅓
Atlas,.....	500,000	238,095 23¼*	273,148 14¼*	35,052 91*	.....
Boston,.....	600,000	665,000 00	690,000 00	25,000 00	.....
City,.....	1,000,000	925,000 00	816,666 66⅔	.....	108,333 33⅓
Columbian,...	500,000	500,000 00	491,666 66⅔	.....	8,333 33⅓
Eagle,.....	500,000	508,333 33⅓	450,000 00	.....	58,333 33⅓

NOTE.—The fractions of a cent, marked with a (*,) are as nearly expressed as our figures will allow us.

* For a table exhibiting the actual condition of the Massachusetts railroads, carefully compiled from the annual reports to the legislature, see Merchants' Magazine, for April, 1844, Vol. X., No. IV., p. 382.

CAPITAL INVESTED IN BOSTON BANKS—Continued.

Names of Bk's.	Capital, Oct. 1843.	Val. of cap. according to av. dividends per annum, for ten years. *October*, 1841.	*October*, 1843.	Change in the value of the capital in 1842 and 1843. *Improvement.*	*Depreciation.*
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Freemans,....	150,000	155,000 00	160,714 28½*	5,714 28½*	.....
Globe,.....	1,000,000	1,025,000 00	1,025,000 00	.....	.....
Granite,.....	500,000	416,666 66⅔	412,000 00	.....	4,166 66⅔
Hamilton,...	500,000	495,614 03½*	491,666 66⅔	.....	3,947 36⅞
Market,.....	560,000	414,838 71*	425,825 15*	10,986 44*	.....
Massachus.,..	800,000	665,333 33⅓	665,333 33⅓	.....	.....
Mechanics,..	150,000	150,000 00	144,642 85⅞*	.....	5,357 14⅛*
Merchants,...	2,000,000	2,295,145 29*	2,295,934 96*	789 33*	.....
N. England,.	1,000,000	1,033,333 33⅓	1,033,333 33⅓	.....	.....
North,.....	750,000	650,000 00	562,500 00	.....	87,500 00
Shawmut,.....	500,000	416,666 66⅔	422,619 04½*	5,952 38½*	.....
Shoe and Leather Dealers,	500,000	566,666 66⅔	559,523 81*	.....	7,142 85⅛*
State,.....	1,800,000	1,732,500 00	1,735,000 00	2,500 00	.....
Suffolk,.....	1,000,000	1,320,512 82*	1,371,980 67½*	51,467 85½*	.....
Traders,.....	500,000	487,500 00	375,000 00	.....	112,500 00
Tremont,.....	500,080	487,500 00	454,166 66⅔	.....	33,333 33⅓
Union,.....	800,000	746,666 66⅔	760,000 00	13,333 33⅓	.....
Washington,.	500,000	421,250 00	410,416 66⅔	.....	20,833 33⅓
	.....	.....	.....	150,796 53½*	458,114 03½*
Deduct	.....	.....	.....	.....	150,796 53½*
Tot., 24 b'ks,	17,110,000	16,768,289 77*	16,460,972 27*	.....	307,317 50*
Deprec. 1841,	.....	.....	.....	.....	341,710 23*
Deprec. 1843,	.....	.....	.....	.....	649,027 73*

NOTE.—The fractions of a cent, marked with a (*,) are as nearly expressed as our figures will allow us.

In connection with the causes bearing upon the prosperity of Boston, it may be proper to allude to the advance of the city in wealth and improvement. With the increase of commerce and the various sorts of enterprise with which it is connected, must be the increase in the number of those who are to transact the business in its various departments, as well as the increase in the number of buildings for their accommodation. Dwelling-houses, workshops, stores, and other edifices, are required to be constructed for those who come to swell the population; and the increase of such buildings is apparent in those extensive blocks of new edifices which have been finished, and that are now rising in the eastern part of the city within the vicinity of the western railroad storehouses, and depot, as well as in other parts, and along its principal streets. We have here appended a statement exhibiting the growth of the city in this respect, from an authentic source, which is, of course, exclusive of those that have been since erected, and which will amount to a greater number, it is said, within the present year.

A statement of the number of houses, &c., built and now building in the city of Boston, from January to November, 1843, taken by the city marshal, James H. Blake, Esq.:—

BOSTON PROPER.

Brick houses and stores,.....	544	Wooden "	2
Wooden "	194	Other large buildings,.....	6
" stables, &c.,.....	56		
Brick school-houses,.....	4	Total,.....	807
" churches,.....	1		

SOUTH BOSTON.

Catholic church,	1	Wooden work-shops,	4
Brick houses,	5		
Wooden houses,	142	Total,	154
" stores,	2		

EAST BOSTON.

Wooden houses,	150
Brick "	7
Total,	157
Grand total,	1,118

This is an increase over last year of about 300 buildings, and does not include small structures, such as workshops, temporary buildings, &c.

The following extract from the assessors' books, exhibits the aggregate amount of all the real and personal estate and polls, and the taxes estimated and levied thereon by the assessors of the city of Boston, in the several years 1842–3 and 1843–4:—

1842–43.

Polls,	19,636	$1½ each	$29,454 00
Personal estate,	$41,223,800	57 cents on $100	234,975 66
Real estate,	65,499,900	" "	373,349 43
Total,	$106,723,700	Levied,	$637,779 09
Sum of the warrant,			610,000 00
Excess,			$27,779 09

1843–44.

Polls,	20,063	$1½ each	$30,094 50
Personal estate,	$42,372,600	62 cents on $100	262,710 12
Real estate,	67,673,400	" "	419,575 08
Total,	$110,046,000	Levied,	$712,379 70
Sum of the warrant,			685,000 00
Excess,			$27,379 09

The foregoing shows an increase, within the year ending on the 1st of May last, of 427 polls (equal to 2,135 population;) $1,148,800 personal property; $2,173,500 real estate; 5 cents on the $100 of the rate, and $74,600 61 increase in the sum total of the tax, the sum total of the tax being nearly 12 per cent greater than last year. By computing the population at five times greater than the number of taxed polls, (which is deemed a fair proportion,) the city numbered, on the first of May last, 100,315 inhabitants.

We have exhibited, in general terms, the foreign commerce of Boston, but we would fail to specify the ample accommodations provided in her port for the coastwise trade. Substantial, convenient, and elegant lines of packets are established between her own docks, and Portland, Portsmouth, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, New Orleans, Mobile, Norfolk, Savannah, and other principal ports upon the coast. A most important measure has likewise been undertaken by foreign enterprise, calculated, in a great degree, to further the prominence of this port as a place of commerce, in the permanent organization of a line of British and North American Royal Mail Steamships, which now regularly ply between Liv-

erpool and Boston, by the way of Halifax. This enterprise is understood to have been projected by Mr. Samuel Cunard, under contract with the lords of the British admiralty, and now possesses in its employ four steamships of 1,200 tons, and 440 horse power, each, which arrive alternately into the port of Boston and depart with adequate freights and passengers. They now consist of the steam vessels, the Hibernia, the Brittania, the Caledonia, and the Acadia, exclusive of the Columbia, which, during the last summer, was stranded upon a rock during her passage to Halifax and wrecked. The certainty and uniformity with which these steam vessels have made their voyages, since the establishment of the line, and the marked advantages that have attended their rapid voyages, both to and from their own country, will, doubtless, warrant their profitable continuance.

We have given a compendious, and, we believe, accurate view of Boston commerce; and it will be evident to those who examine the subject that it is now in a prosperous and thriving condition. With lines of railroads penetrating every quarter of the country, and heaping her depots and storehouses with her own manufactured goods, as well as the agricultural products of the west, both animal and vegetable, with cotton or woollen manufactories playing upon almost every waterfall in her vicinity, with fisheries that pour into her warehouses the most valuable products for consumption and export, with a coastwise trade that reaches all our principal ports, a regular steam communication with Europe, and a foreign commerce that floats in every sea, with accumulated capital, the offspring of two centuries of industry and frugality, of morality and perseverance, and with a working population, preserving some of the most valuable traits of their ancestors, she cannot but continue to be prosperous.

We would not conclude this paper without bearing our humble testimony to those prominent traits of character which have ever marked the mercantile community of the port whose commerce we have attempted to describe. It is not adapted to our taste, nor is this the place to bestow indiscriminate eulogium upon any man or body of men; but, if straightforward honesty and liberality, intelligence and forecast, enterprise and perseverance, tend to constitute an elevated form of commercial character, then we may find it here in the commercial metropolis of New England. Its merchants have never been found wanting in those traits which go to make up solid and patriotic principle, and they have always been foremost in the ranks of beneficence and patriotism. It is doubtless their enterprise and industry that have, in a great measure, made it what it is: for it possesses but sparse agricultural advantages, and forms a part of a rocky coast. The evidences of these sterling traits are manifest in the numerous institutions here established for purposes of charity, education, and religion—in its public schools, churches, and hospitals—in its various stocks which are sought by capitalists from abroad as safe and stable investments, and in that elegant edifice erected by the commercial body, and devoted to objects connected with commerce—the Merchants' Exchange. We might have touched upon the more ornate features of our subject, and have attempted to describe those picturesque and smiling villages scattered along the shore, which seem to slumber in snow-white purity around the margin of the harbor, as if to soften the rugged face of nature and the tumult of business with the delicate loveliness of art; but

we have preferred to confine ourselves to its more practical bearings, and to exhibit the actual condition of that commerce, which, in connection with the character by which it is wielded, is enabled to exercise a mighty influence upon the prospects of New England.

Art. III.—THE CROTON AQUEDUCT.*

Disastrous as the result of that expansion of credit, which, for a time pervaded the whole commercial world has been to the fortunes of individuals, its existence has not passed away without leaving numerous permanent works of art and utility by which to perpetuate the remembrance of the halcyon days. Among the enterprises owing their origin to a universally diffused confidence in the continuance of a state of prosperity, that was not lightly supposed had its foundation in other than ephemeral causes—in the vastly increased powers of production, and in the augmented facilities of intercommunication by sea and by land, to which the application of steam to the various purposes in question had mainly contributed, may we ascribe the construction of the Croton aqueduct. This work, which is not less honorable to the commercial emporium, to the health and prosperity of which it contributes, than was the Erie canal, twenty years previous, to the great state whose wealth and population it has tended so essentially to augment, was, to an extent unprecedented in ordinary legislation, the direct emanation of popular sentiment. Indeed, we hazard little in saying, even after being in a position to appreciate the fruits of this republican providence, that nothing short of the buoyancy which, in April, 1835, already manifested itself in the pecuniary concerns of the community at large, could have obtained for a project involving the expenditure, demanded at the lowest calculation, of several millions, for supplying the city "with pure and wholesome water," three-fourths of the votes of the electors of New York; including, in this majority, the whole body of tax-paying inhabitants.

In making these remarks, we are not ignorant of the existence of former projects for the attainment of the same object. All of them, however, though contemplated on a scale vastly inferior to the present aqueduct, were without any adequate result. The subject, even before the revolution, occupied the attention of the city councils; and, in carrying into effect, in 1774, the plan of a public reservoir, the supply of which was to be obtained from the digging of large wells, recourse was had to the issue of paper money, which our colonial historians, not less than those of the revolution, teach us, is no invention of recent date, but has long existed, even in America, as the ordinary panacea for all financial embarrassments. To all measures, however, having reference merely to the amelioration of domestic arrangements, or the comforts of tranquil citizens, the events of the war, during the greater part of which New York was a British garrison, of course put an end.

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* A Memoir on the Construction, Cost, and Capacity of the Croton Aqueduct, compiled from Official Documents. Together with an Account of the Civic Celebration of the 14th October, 1842, on occasion of the completion of the great work. Preceded by a Preliminary Essay on Ancient and Modern Aqueducts. By Charles King. New York: 1843.

A dry abstract of the proceedings of a municipal corporation, during the half century which intervened between the evacuation of the city by hostile troops, and the final adoption of the plan of the great work, would be entirely foreign to the pages of a commercial journal. Nor shall we review what was said, in early days, as to the relative advantages of the *Kolck*, as the Dutch inhabitants denominated the *Verschewater*, or fresh water pond, in later times anglicised (without regard to the meaning of the original term) into Collect, which then existed in what is now a central portion of the town, and of the Bronx, a small river emanating from the Rye pond, in Westchester county, about fourteen miles from the City Hall; and which latter source of supply was, till a recent period, the utmost limit of the views of the boldest of the water projectors. The narrative is, however, not without collateral incidents, that may well merit a passing notice. The public sentiment, in favor of adopting all practicable measures for securing this necessary of life, was not overlooked by the parties who, among the first, availed themselves of the advantages which the bank monopoly, the source of so much corruption in the subsequent legislation of the state, was supposed to impart. And, in 1799, when the city councils had so far matured their plans, in relation to the Bronx river, as to make an application to the legislature for the requisite powers, we find even the honored name of Alexander Hamilton associated with that of the political rival to whom he sacrificed his life, in counteracting their measures, in order, under the pretext of furnishing water by a joint stock company, to obtain perpetual corporate powers for a bank. The city, itself, by the offer of the contingent profit on an amount of stock, not exceeding one-twentieth of the capital of the institution, was content to surrender forever one of the most obvious of municipal rights and duties. To the real motive of the act, which was covertly expressed under the general terms, allowing the corporation to employ their surplus capital in the purchase of public stock, "or in any other moneyed transaction not incompatible with the constitution of the state, or of the United States," as is sufficiently evidenced by the necessity that called forth the present work, were its ostensible objects sacrificed. "It was," says the memoir, "indeed soon felt that the promise of a supply from the Manhattan water was delusive. Although privileged by their charter to go over the whole island of New York, and into Westchester county, to seek for good water, the company contented themselves with sinking a large well at the corner of Duane and Cross streets, in one of the most thickly settled portions of the city, and thence pumped up that which they called pure and wholesome, but which was necessarily most impure."

But the impolicy of relying on joint stock companies seems not to have been sufficiently manifested by the failure of the Manhattan bank to fulfil their avowed intentions; and, before the city entered on the business on its own behalf, three other companies were incorporated, either for the sole purpose of supplying pure and wholesome water, or with the incidental duty and privilege of so doing.

An idea was also suggested of supplying the city from Artesian wells; and the refutation of the project illustrates the great saving of expenditure on impracticable schemes, which the science of geology has effected. Artesian wells require the existence of a pervious stratum, placed between two impervious ones, and the percolation of the water from a point higher than that to which it is desired that it should rise. The basin of Paris,

where the well of Grenelle is situated, is of great extent. The sources, which flow in the gravel below the limestone, and which are at the depth of 440 yards, are the same as supply the wells of St. Ouen and St. Denis. It was ascertained, from the rise of the water in the well at Elbeuf, which was more elevated above the sea than that at Grenelle, that the infiltration was higher than the orifice to which it was to rise. The water to be obtained from New York island is not supplied from sources beyond its limits. All the fresh water to be procured there falls directly from the clouds, is absorbed in the earth, and carries with it all the salt, filth, and other matters, which it is capable of dissolving. These ingredients, of course, affect the water of all the city wells. But not only was the water obtained in the city of an impure character, but the annual fall, after deducting the amount lost by evaporation, or carried off in various ways from the surface, was wholly inadequate to the purpose of affording a supply.

It seems to have been the idea that not only was water to be obtained by boring, but that the marshy and low grounds afforded the best localities for the purpose, without any regard to the filth through which the water must have previously percolated. Accordingly, an attempt was made for the purpose, in 1824, in what had been Beekman's swamp, and which has been subsequently used for the various tanneries established within the city. "The projector began his operations," says Mr. Cozzens, the geologist of the island; "passed through the made ground on the top, and came to the old swamp, with all its black mould, its remains of peat, roots of trees, and other materials, such as are known to be in these places, but no fresh water appeared. On the contrary, it was hard, and of bad odor. What was to be done? After so much money, no good water! "Why, it is a mineral spring;" said one. "The corporation should certainly purchase it," said another; "there is no doubt but it will cure all diseases." A petition, to this effect, was sent in, and a committee of the common council appointed for the purpose. There was no action, indeed, on the part of the municipal legislature, thanks to the advice of a man of science, to whom the committee addressed themselves; but the proprietors, for a time, practised on the credulity of their fellow-citizens, by vending this noxious fluid as a mineral water, possessing valuable medicinal qualities.

Among the plans suggested, without meeting with success, is one which, from its striking character, cannot be passed by unnoticed. It was proposed to erect a permanent dam across the Hudson, from the New York to the New Jersey shore, with such an elevation above high tide as would prevent the influx of the salt water; but, though the projector offered to effect this at a cost not exceeding one-tenth of the outlay for the Croton aqueduct, and promised that several collateral advantages would accrue from it, it need hardly be stated that the suggestion received no attention from those to whom it was submitted. To say nothing of the constitutional difficulty of obstructing a navigable river, it was justly supposed that anything which jeoparded the commercial facilities which New York possessed, was not lightly to be attempted.

The first recommendation of the Croton, as the stream on which the city was to rely, was made in December, 1832, by the late De Witt Clinton, a civil engineer, and a son of the distinguished individual whose name he bore. He proposed an open canal, like that of the New river,

and estimated the expense, including the distributing reservoir on the island, at $2,500,000. The report of Mr. Clinton was followed by the act of 1833, under which the *reconnoissance* of Major Douglas, fixing definitively on the Croton as the source of supply, was made; and, by a law of the subsequent year, the present plan of the waterworks was submitted to the electors at large, to be decided by their ballots. The result of that reference, so honorable to the enterprise of the city, has been already narrated; nor is it to be forgotten that this expression of public sentiment preceded, by several months, the destructive conflagration of December, 1835, by which twenty millions of property were annihilated, and which was so well calculated to prove the value of the waterworks for other than domestic purposes.

The plan, which was thus laid before the people, and which has been followed in all its parts, except in deviating from the level in crossing the Harlem river and Manhattan valley, both of which alterations detract greatly from the magnificence, if not from the utility of the work, was prepared by Major Douglas, an alumnus, and subsequently a professor of that eminently scientific institution, the Military Academy at West Point, and who, after having been distinguished alike as a civil and military engineer, now presides over the first seminary of the west. The works of the aqueduct commence about six miles above the mouth of the Croton, which empties into the Hudson about thirty-six miles from New York. At the inlet for the Croton, a dam has been constructed to elevate the water 166 feet above mean tide, the distance from which to the distributing reservoir is 40.562 miles, of which 37.067 miles are of masonry conduit, and the remainder consists either of iron pipes or of the length of the passage through the reservoirs. To this extent, may be added the dam and other works required to obtain the Croton at the proper elevation, and which would make the aqueduct 45.562 miles; while the large mains from the distributing reservoirs through the central parts of the city would add five miles, making altogether about fifty miles. As to the difficulties, which the nature of the country presented, it may be stated that there are on the line sixteen tunnels, varying from 160 to 1,263 feet, and making an aggregate length of 6,841 feet. In the course, through Westchester county alone, there are twenty-five streams crossing the line of the aqueduct, and numerous vallies, while the passing of the Manhattan and Clendining vallies, on New York island, constitute, after the bridge over the Harlem river, the most prominent incidents of the work. The bottom of the conduit is an inverted arch, and the roofing arch is an inverted semicircle; the greatest interior width is 7 feet 5 inches, and the greatest height 8 feet 5½ inches. There have been constructed of stone, laid in hydraulic cement, 114 culverts, whose aggregate length is 7,959 feet, with a space varying from a foot and a half to twenty-five feet, and also five road culverts of from fourteen to twenty feet space. The thirty-three ventilators intended to give free circulation of air, and whose elevation presents a prominent object to the eye throughout the route—the waste weirs and the other appendages of the water-works, we cannot enter sufficiently into detail to describe. The Manhattan valley is passed merely by iron pipes laid as syphons, but the Clendining bridge, which is so constructed as to allow the streets that may hereafter be required to pass under it, is a finished piece of masonry, while the receiving and distributing reservoirs, the former of which contains upwards of thirty-five acres, and has a ca-

pacity for 150,000,000 imperial gallons, and the latter for 20,000,000 gallons, are so familiar to all visitors to New York as to render a minute description of them unnecessary. The Croton reservoir contains about 400 acres of land, and is available for 500,000,000 imperial gallons above the level, that would allow the aqueduct to discharge 35,000,000 gallons per day. The minimum flow of the Croton is 27,000,000 of gallons. We may also remark that, from the water being distributed by its own head, there is no expenditure for forcing pumps or engines.

As a work of art, in magnificence and costliness surpassing any similar structure in our country, we may refer to the Harlem bridge. In the original plan of Major Douglas, this river, as well as the Manhattan valley, was to be passed without any other deviation from the uniform level than the requisite flow of the waters throughout the whole extent required, it being considered that any additional expense over inverted syphons, which the former plan might require, would be more than compensated by the exemption from repairs, and by the greater certainty of a continuous regular supply of water. The crossing at Harlem river was proposed to be effected by means of an aqueduct bridge 1,188 feet in length, which was subsequently found would be 1,450 feet, 620 of which were in the river, and consisting of nine plain semicircular arches. The height of the structure was to have been 126 feet, which was afterwards stated at 163 feet above the rock, or 138 feet above mean tide. This work, as the able engineer remarked, though no mean enterprise, was far from an impracticable one; and the aqueduct of Alcantara, near Lisbon, with its thirty-five arches, of 100 feet span, and 230 feet height, of Caserta, with its ninety arches, and 178 feet height, of Spoletto, with its ten arches 300 feet height, and of the iron canal of Pontcyville, resting on eighteen piers of brick, 120 feet in elevation, were cited to prove its feasibility. Unfortunately, owing to collisions between the chief engineer and the commissioners to whom, according to the system prevalent in this country, the superintendence of the work was confided, and who, as is ordinarily the case whether the enterprise is of a public or a private nature, were selected without reference to scientific qualifications, Major Douglas was, at an early day, obliged to discontinue his connection with the aqueduct, and his successor, educated in a wholly different school, however competent to the mechanical execution of the work, had none of the enlarged views which influenced the engineer with whom the plan originated. The work was beginning to overrun the previous estimates, and a false economy, looking to immediate, without regard to remote results, induced a deviation from Major Douglas's plan in crossing both the Manhattan valley and the Harlem river, by the insertion of inverted syphons, and whereby, in the latter case, with the exception of a single opening of eighty feet wide by fifty feet in height, the waters were to be effectually dammed up. The Harlem river, being, however, a navigable water, and which, with a little expenditure, would afford a complete circumnavigation of the island, the legislature interposed. The commissioners, declining the alternative proffered of making a tunnel under the river, adopted such an elevation as would not interfere with the use of the river for the purposes of commerce; but, instead of pursuing the level, they combined the two plans of syphon and high bridge. They also disregarded the suggestion of the original engineer, to combine with the aqueduct a viaduct, by which New York, with comparatively little additional charge, might have possessed

the most magnificent outlet of any city of the universe. The bridge which was decided on, and is now nearly half completed, is, by the plan, to be supported by seven land arches, each of fifty feet span, on the valley between the river and the adjacent hills, and over the river by eight arches of eighty feet span, each. The crown of the intrados of the arches is 100 feet above the surface of the water, and the height of the superstructure 120 feet.

The cost of the whole work, after the completion of the Harlem bridge, will exceed $12,500,000, in which sum, however, is included the interest on previous outlays to the time that the aqueduct went into operation. It may be remarked, as honorable to the foresight of the council, by whom the enterprise was directed, that, despite of all changes of partisan politics, no interruption like that which has led to so great an annihilation of property by the suspension of other public improvements, when half completed, ever occurred in this case. Though the city was compelled to raise the interest on its loans to a rate much beyond what was anticipated, at the outset of the undertaking, and submit to other apparent sacrifices, yet they allowed no false economy to interfere with the prosecution of their measures, but persevered uninterruptedly in their enterprise till its completion. Nor ought we, when some even of the sovereign states of the Union have brought the American character into disrepute, by the repudiation of their plighted faith, to overlook the fact that not only is there provision made for the payment of the interest, amounting annually to $665,000 on the debt incurred for the construction of the Croton water-works, but that the whole revenue, from this work, with the other resources of the city sinking fund, is irrevocably pledged to the redemption of the principal, and which will be extinguished as the existing loans fall due, the last of which is payable in 1880. Thus will the pecuniary obligations of New York, incurred in the construction of this gigantic work, be strictly discharged, while the present age will be making a free gift to all subsequent generations of what may well compare with the works which Rome points to, as constituting the most valued monuments of her ancient glory.

It may now be safely asserted, that no town enjoys a more abundant supply of pure water than New York. Its advantages have been experienced in the health and comfort of the inhabitants, and in the great diminution of those destructive conflagrations by which the city was formerly characterized; and the benefit of it is felt, not only in preserving from annihilation so much of the property of the world, but by the proprietors themselves, in the lessened cost of the insurance required to effect their indemnity.

Though not able to boast of the statuary and architectural decorations which distinguished Trevi, and the other fountains of imperial Rome, and which yet serve to mark the pristine riches of Bologna, Sienna, and the other numerous and once independent communities of Italy, and though higher *jets d'eau* of modern origin, like that of Cassel, may bo found, yet the fountains already erected at the Bowling Green, the Park, and Union Place, and of which species of embellishment, London and the other British cities are wholly destitute, may be referred to as not surpassed in capacity, for aquatic display, by any similar works, even of the proud capitals of continental Europe. Though, as the author of the memoir states, two of the New York fountains daily throw away more water than would

suffice for the supply of other large cities, the quantity with which they are furnished, is not, like that exhibited in the Tuilleries, subtracted from the necessary demands of the people. In Paris, though the canal de l'Ourcq, a work fifty-eight miles in length, introduces daily 20,000,000 of gallons, all of it is expended on the fountains and for cleaning the streets, the inhabitants looking for their demands to what they can procure from the basins or from the Seine. No means exist for raising the water to the upper stories of houses, and the reservoirs of all the private dwellings are filled by the slow and laborious operation of manual labor. In London, the inhabitants are furnished from the Thames by several private companies, who are paid a certain price for the water, no portion of which, as was observed, is used for fountains or other objects of embellishment.

To the aqueduct-bridges of Caserta and of Alcantara, we have already alluded, in speaking of the original plan of that over the Harlem river; and our limits do not suffice to institute comparisons between the arrangements in the other capitals of Europe, including the peculiar characteristics of Turkish aqueducts, whether as contributing to utility or luxury, and the recent work at New York. It may not, however, be irrelevant to remark that most of the continental cities, like Philadelphia, have the advantage of the immediate proximity of fresh water rivers, which render the introduction of them from elsewhere unnecessary; and that, as far as artificial works are required, they are confined to the elevation and distribution of the water. St. Petersburgh is not only divided by the Newa, but is traversed by canals. We will finish this part of our subject with the concluding sentence of the work before us; and which, as it was written by the historiographer of a municipal corporation, and on their behalf, will not be deemed an extravagant eulogium on what a single city of our country has effected:—"It is for the future, even more than for the present; and will attest, to other lands and to other times, that, magnificent as may be the works of conquerors and kings, they have not equalled, in forecast of design, and beneficence of result, the noble aqueduct constructed, at their own cost, by the freemen of the single city of New York."

The portion of the work which necessarily elicited the most literary research, is the preliminary essay, in which a very interesting account is given of the most remarkable works of antiquity, in connection with the introduction and conveyance of water. Of this subject, however, we can take but a brief notice. With a people without the knowledge or ability to have recourse to artificial means of supply, the selection of natural wells, or reservoirs, has ever been a most important consideration in the fixing on sites where to pitch their tents, or establish their residence. Mr. King refers to the scriptural allusions to this subject, as well to the pools of Solomon as to the aqueduct, the remains of which are still to be found at Jerusalem. The sites of villages, among the aborigines of our own country, almost always indicate the existence of springs of pure water; while we learn from Mr. Stephens that, in Yucatan, where the absence of rivers in the interior rendered them particularly valuable, natural reservoirs of water, existing at a considerable depth, with orifices of the nature of the Artesian wells, of modern days, were discovered in the various cities visited by him. The aqueducts and fountains of Mexico constituted, at the time of the conquest, some of the most striking illustrations of the civilization and advanced state of the arts in Montezuma's empire.

It is an erroneous idea that the Greeks had no aqueducts. They are spoken of by Pausanias and others; though, ignorant as they were of the arch, it is difficult to ascertain by what means the water was carried across valleys. Those by Pisistratus, at Athens, and Polycrates, at Samos, were rather conduits than ranges of buildings, like the Roman aqueducts. It is, however, at Rome that we find constructions for the conveyance of water, which still continue among the greatest wonders of "the eternal city;" and to them shall we devote the few remaining remarks that we have allowed ourselves to make. Vitruvius gives rules for the construction of aqueducts, which, according to him, might be either of masonry, leaden pipes, or tiles of fictile ware, as well as of the *castellum*, or reservoir. He understood the great hydrodynamical principle, that water always rises of itself, at the delivery, to the height of head whence it flowed; and, though iron pipes were unknown to them, at Lyons, and elsewhere, we find leaden pipes employed, as far as they were capable of sustaining the pressure, in the construction of syphons. The Roman legislation, as to the aqueducts, their minute regulations, as to the administration of these great works, are appropriately introduced into the present treatise. These matters can only be alluded to here, yet it may be remarked that, though the people were gratuitously supplied from the public fountains, the aqueducts were kept in repair by the revenue derived from the tax on the water carried to private houses and gardens. It was in the year 441 of the city, that the *Aqua Appia*, upwards of eleven miles in extent, but of which no traces now remain, was constructed. The *Anio Vetus* followed, forty years afterwards. It began above Tivoli, twenty miles from Rome, but ran circuitously forty-three miles. One hundred and twenty-seven years afterwards, the *Marcia*, whose waters were preferred to all others, was constructed. Its length was 60 miles and 710 paces, of which 54 miles and 247 paces were subterraneous. The arches of the rest, though it had ceased to exist as an aqueduct in the first century, are still remaining in the Campagna. The *Aqua Tepula*, nineteen years afterwards, was the next in order. It was about fifteen miles and a half long, of which seven were above ground. Then followed, thirteen years afterwards, the *Aqua Virginis*, which was about fourteen miles in length. The *Aqua Alsietina*, twenty-two miles and a half, was introduced by Augustus, and repaired by Trajan. It now supplies the fountains of St. Peter's and the Vatican. The *Aqua Claudia*, and the *Anio Novus*, were commenced by Caligula, and finished by Claudius. The whole length of the former was upwards of forty-six miles, of which thirty-six were subterraneous, and the rest was carried over arches; and of the latter, sixty-two miles. Of this last, forty-eight miles were subterraneous; and the arches of the other portion rose, in some instances, to the height of 109 feet. Five additional aqueducts were constructed in the later days of the empire; but of the eight which we have enumerated, the aggregate length was 275 miles; and Frontinus, who lived in the first century, when the population of Rome was computed at from 1,000,000 to 1,200,000, states that the daily supply, from these aqueducts, was 196,000,000 gallons, equal to 196 gallons to each individual. Of this profuse use of water, we may form some conjecture, by a reference to the fact that London, with twice the population, consumes but 37,000,000, or the fifth part of the supply of ancient Rome.

Art. IV.—MANUFACTURE OF SALT IN NEW YORK.

In the Merchants' Magazine for April, 1843, we published an account of the trade in, and manufacture of, salt in the United States, which we prepared from a variety of official sources. In that article, we embraced the operations of the Onondaga salt springs, belonging to the state of New York, for a series of years, including a full statistical view of the quantity manufactured in 1842, and the amount of tolls collected and paid into the treasury of the state, together with a variety of other information connected with the subject. We now proceed to lay before our readers, derived from the last annual report of the superintendent of the springs, a condensed view of the movement in this branch of manufactures, for 1843. It appears, from this report, that several new establishments were erected in 1843, for the manufacture of salt; the most important of which is one projected by Messrs. Ives, Spencer & Nolton, to which is attached a steam-engine and saw, capable of making three hundred bushels of salt, and sawing from six to eight thousand feet of lumber, per day. Its construction was attended with a large outlay of capital. It has been in operation since August, 1843, and fully answers the expectations of its enterprising proprietors.

A description of this establishment, furnished by the proprietors, will not, we presume, be uninteresting to those of our readers who take an interest in the progress of the resources of the state:—

"We have seventy kettles, of a capacity of about one hundred gallons each, set in brick masonry, in two parallel ranges. In front of each range of kettles, there is a steam-boiler, twenty feet long, and thirty inches diameter, also set in brick masonry. Beneath the front end of each steam-boiler, there is a fire-grate, four feet long, and thirty inches wide.

"The chimney is placed at the end of the range of kettles most remote from the steam-boilers. The flues, for the passage of heat and smoke, extend in a direct line, from the fire-grates under the boilers and kettles, a distance of one hundred and sixty feet, to the chimney.

"The whole is covered by a building one hundred and eighty feet long, and forty feet wide. Adjoining this building, and opposite the boilers, there is another, twenty-five by fifty feet, containing a steam-engine, and machinery for sawing lumber. Adjoining this, there are two reservoirs, each forty feet long, eighteen feet wide, and six feet deep, with six metallic pipes, of four-inch bore, passing through each reservoir lengthwise, about two feet above the bottom. Adjoining these reservoirs, there are other two of like dimensions, but without pipe. The first-named reservoirs are elevated five feet above the other two, and are sufficiently high to discharge their contents into the kettles. The steam-boilers are supplied with fresh water by means of a force-pump, and the kettles are supplied with brine from the last-named reservoirs, which receive their supply from the others which contain the metallic pipe. When the works are in operation, it requires daily six cords of wood for fuel, which is consumed upon the fire-grates beneath the boilers; the heat of which extends beneath the kettles the entire length of the ranges to the chimney, by which means we manufacture in the kettles three hundred bushels of salt daily. The steam generated in the boilers, after propelling the steam-

engine, and machinery for sawing lumber, is conducted through the metallic pipes in the reservoirs, by which means the brine which they contain is heated to about 200° Fahrenheit, and reduced nearly to the point of saturation, and the impurities contained in the brine, in its crude state, are precipitated; after which, it is drawn off into the adjoining reservoirs, to supply the kettles.

"The saw-mill, propelled by the steam-engine, is capable of sawing from six to eight thousand feet of lumber in twenty-four hours."

Henry T. Hooker has also erected salt-works the present season, to which is attached a steam-engine and apparatus capable of making and grinding from seventy-five to one hundred bushels of pure salt per day. We subjoin Mr. Hooker's description of his salt-works:—

"A single arch, of about eighty feet. In front is a steam-boiler, for fresh water. The steam is first applied to an engine; and thence, passing through copper tubes, assists in the manufacture of salt. Next to the boiler is a kiln for drying, the salt being stirred by machinery; then, thirteen kettles complete the arch. In manufacturing salt, the water is first received into a vat about fifty feet in length, four feet wide, and twelve inches deep, which is heated by steam, the copper tube passing through and returning the whole length of the vat. From this vat, the water runs constantly into three of the kettles, and passes from them, through holes drilled near the top of each, as fast as the water is sufficiently boiled, into a narrow vat fifty feet long; and from this into another of the same length, and four feet wide. In each of these vats are partitions, to prevent impurities from passing through. The brine, then, being pure, is pumped into kettles for boiling, and drawn into a vat, where it is evaporated by passing steam through a copper tube. The salt, being dried upon the kiln, and ground by the steam-power, is a pure and beautiful article for table or dairy use."

One of the principal merits of the above establishments, so far as relates to the manufacture of salt, is the separation of the impurities from the brine, before it is drawn into the pans or kettles, where the salting process is completed.

In addition to the above, several establishments have been erected for the exclusive purpose of drying and grinding salt. Among them, the most important is one erected by I. P. Haskins, Esq., of Salina village, capable of drying and grinding from five to eight hundred bushels per day. It has been in operation since August, 1843, and has furnished a large amount of ground or dairy salt, of a superior quality, which would not suffer by a comparison with the best qualities of Liverpool sack salt. It is, in fact, a neater and more desirable article than any hitherto presented to the public. It is put up in bags and sacks, containing from twenty-eight pounds to four bushels; also, in barrels and half barrels, and meets with a ready sale in the eastern market.

Several minor establishments have also been erected, with the same object in view, viz: drying and grinding salt, the machinery of which is operated by horse-power. Very recently, a large establishment has been fitted up in the village of Syracuse, by Messrs. Stevens & Bracket, driven by water-power, supposed capable of furnishing one thousand bushels of ground salt per day. From the extensive preparations that are making for supplying the above article, which competes so successfully in the eastern market with the Liverpool sack salt, no doubt is entertained that from one million to one and a quarter million bushels of Onondaga salt

will be sent to tide-water the coming season, if the law of the 18th April last is not disturbed.

It will be seen, from a table below, that there have been manufactured and inspected, in the town of Salina, (embracing the villages of Salina, Syracuse, Liverpool, and Geddes,) during the year 1843, of coarse, or solar salt, 318,105 bushels; of common, or fine salt, 2,723,863; of ground, or dairy salt, 76,531, with the fractions of bushels; making a grand total of 3,127,500 bushels—being an increase over the preceding year, (1842,) of 835,579. The cause of this large increase is attributed by the superintendent mainly to the operations of the law of April, 1843, giving a bounty on salt delivered at certain points, by securing to the manufacturers markets from which they had hitherto been almost entirely excluded. Although the increase over 1842 is large, but for causes not likely again to occur, it would have been still greater. The following may be assigned as materially affecting the quantity the past season:—The quantity on hand, at the opening of navigation, was much less than usual; owing, in a great measure, to the fact that the manufacturers were deterred from prosecuting their business in the winter, in consequence of heavy losses sustained the previous year, believing that from forty to sixty days would be sufficient to manufacture all the salt that could be sold. Another cause was the high water in the lake, thereby preventing all the manufactories upon the low lands from commencing operations until quite into June. The additional fact that all salt had to remain fourteen days in the bins before it could be packed, tended still farther to postpone the time when new salt, from a majority of the manufactories, could be put into market. The unprecedented bad weather, that commenced about the middle of September, and continued until the close of navigation, had a decided influence in lessening the quantity that would otherwise have been made. But for the above causes, no doubt is entertained that at least 300,000 bushels more would have been made and shipped the past season.

The limited supply of salt in the month of June, which was unavoidable under the circumstances, also operated to raise the price above what had been anticipated; but as soon as the blocks were all in operation, and new salt ready for market, the price immediately fell to what it cost to manufacture it; and the price will not, probably, for a series of years, rise above what a full supply and an active competition shall establish; which will be at the lowest point that it can be manufactured without loss.

The revenue collected from all sources, during the year 1843, was $207,733 92; from which, deducting all expenses, a balance of $112,074 54 remained as the nett revenue from salt duties paid into the general fund; being $30,255 01 more than in 1842. The gain to the canal fund, on salt arriving at tide-water, and the junction of the Erie and Champlain canals, in 1843, over 1842, produced by the operations of the law of 13th of April, 1843, is $10,217 97.

The following statement will show the amount of salt that has reached tide-water, or the junction of the Erie and Champlain canals, from 1839 to 1843, inclusive, and the revenue derived from the same:—

Year.	Bush. salt.	Duties.	Canal tolls.	Toll on boats.	Tot. revenue
1839,.....	23,440	$1,406 40	$553 13	$117 20	$2,076 73
1840,.....	13,040	782 40	307 73	65 20	1,115 33
1841,.....	90,985	no duties.	2,149 06	454 92	2,601 98
1842,.....	156,500	no duties.	3,693 08	782 47	4,475 55
1843,.....	536,954	no duties.	4,295 60*	1,533 06	5,828 66

* One-third tolls.

It will be perceived, from the above statement, that, with full tolls and duties, the total revenue on salt delivered at tide-water, in 1840, was only $1,115 33; that, with no duties, and full tolls, the revenue increased, in 1842, to $4,475 55; and with no duties, and one-third tolls, it reached, in 1843, to $5,828 66.

The whole amount of salt inspected at different villages in the town of Salina, during the year 1843, is as follows:—

SALT INSPECTED IN THE TOWN OF SALINA, IN 1843.

1843.	SALINA. Bush. lbs.	SYRACUSE. Bush. lbs.	LIVERPOOL. Bush. lbs.	GEDDES. Bush. lbs.	AGGREGATE. Bush. lbs.
January,	2,063.24	5,019.08	1,853.00	653.54	9,589.30
February,	6,249.00	13,562.31	4,026.17	5,331.42	29,169.34
March,	3,512.34	9,113.03	2,571.50	2,024.26	17,222.01
April,	1,736.08	1,571.16	8,062.28	88.08	11,458.04
4 weeks ending May 28,	102,002.05	54,735.15	58,239.42	12,466.54	227,444.04
" June 24,	87,095.48	80,876.36	33,758.44	12,931.08	214,662.24
" July 22,	184,052.16	163,339.50	74,651.35	34,493.16	456,537.05
" Aug. 19,	229,382.14	143,159.10	107,863.54	43,356.31	523,761.53
" Sept. 16,	168,165.00	139,766.28	97,127.37	38,310.46	443,369.55
" Oct. 14,	201,205.18	148,316.22	107,178.24	41,075.05	497,775.13
" Nov. 11,	165,145.24	125,923.12	105,595.28	50,227.12	446,891.20
" Dec. 9,	49,758.00	83,422.29	73,467.10	33,797.17	240,445.00
3 " Dec. 31,	2,770.33	5,015.52	809.41	578.16	9,174.30
Total amount,	1,203,138.00	973,821.32	675,206.18	275,334.55	3,127,500.49

Coarse salt,	318,105.34
Fine "	2,732,863.43
Dairy "	76,531.28
Total,	3,127,500.49

SALT INSPECTED IN THE VILLAGE OF SALINA, IN 1843.

1843.	COARSE. Bush. lbs.	FINE. Bush. lbs.	DAIRY. Bush. lbs.	AGGREGATE. Bush. lbs.
January,	0.00	2,039.46	23.34	2,063.24
February,	0.00	6,249.00	0.00	6,249.00
March,	0.00	3,468.30	44.04	3,512.34
April,	0.00	1,714.04	22.04	1,736.08
4 weeks ending May 27,	0.00	101,360.29	641.32	102,002.05
" June 24,	0.00	86,216.45	879.03	87,095.48
" July 22,	0.00	182,304.31	1,747.41	184,052.16
" Aug. 19,	13.24	227,322.34	2,046.12	229,382.14
" Sept. 16,	1,001.04	163,603.36	3,560.16	168,165.00
" Oct. 14,	1,194.06	192,238.24	7,772.44	201,205.18
" Nov. 11,	3,113.12	152,193.36	9,838.32	165,145.24
" Dec. 9,	78.32	44,407.24	5,272.00	49,758.00
3 " Dec. 30,	0.00	2,720.33	50.00	2,770.33
Total amount,	5,400.22	1,165,839.36	31,897.54	1,203,138.00

SALT INSPECTED IN THE VILLAGE OF SYRACUSE, IN 1843.

1843.	COARSE. Bush. lbs.	FINE. Bush. lbs.	DAIRY. Bush. lbs.	AGGREGATE. Bush. lbs.
January,	119.28	4,752.30	147.06	5,019.08
February,	119.35	13,032.13	410.39	13,562.31
March,	62.02	8,741.46	309.11	9,113.03
April,	0.00	1,435.22	135.50	1,571.16
4 weeks ending May 27,	7,270.22	42,890.41	4,574.08	54,735.15
" June 24,	31,506.38	44,292.18	5,077.36	80,876.36
" July 22,	52,140.04	106,738.28	4,461.18	163,339.50

SALT INSPECTED IN THE VILLAGE OF SYRACUSE—Continued.

1843.	Coarse. Bush. lbs.	Fine. Bush. lbs.	Dairy. Bush. lbs.	Aggregate. Bush. lbs.
4 weeks ending Aug. 19,	43,754.22	94,752.02	4,652.42	143,159.10
" Sept. 10,	49,515.09	86,474.06	3,777.13	139,766.28
" Oct. 14,	50,342.17	92,950.32	5,023.29	148,316.22
" Nov. 11,	37,787.35	82,041.26	6,094.07	125,923.12
" Dec. 9,	14,311.35	65,135.32	3,975.18	83,422.29
3 " Dec. 30,	594.17	4,324.35	97.00	5,015.52
Total amount,.....	287,523.40	647,561.51	38,735.53	973,821.32

SALT INSPECTED IN THE VILLAGE OF GEDDES, IN 1843.

1843.	Coarse. Bush. lbs.	Fine. Bush. lbs.	Dairy. Bush. lbs.	Aggregate. Bush. lbs.
January,.....	21.44	629.10	3.00	653.54
February,.....	2,133.26	3,157.46	40.26	5,331.42
March,.....	32.30	1,923.42	68.10	2,024.26
April,.....	0.00	72.12	15.52	88.08
4 weeks ending May 27,	331.34	11,193.48	941.28	12,466.54
" June 24,	36.34	11,840.16	1,054.14	12,931.08
" July 22,	1,333.12	32,149.08	1,010.52	34,493.16
" Aug. 19,	4,101.18	38,658.03	597.10	43,356.31
" Sept. 16,	2,365.50	35,475.31	469.21	38,310.46
" Oct. 14,	5,842.12	35,090.45	142.04	41,075.05
" Nov. 11,	7,618.51	41,577.15	1,031.02	50,227.12
" Dec. 9,	1,320.33	31,960.02	516.38	33,797.17
3 " Dec. 30,	43.20	527.52	7.00	578.16
Total amount,.....	25,181.28	244,255.50	5,897.33	275,334.55

SALT INSPECTED IN THE VILLAGE OF LIVERPOOL, IN 1843.

1843.	Fine Salt. Bushels.	1843.	Fine Salt. Bushels.
January,.....	1,853.00	4 weeks, ending Sept. 16,....	97,127.37
February,.....	4,026.17	" Oct. 14,....	107,178.24
March,.....	2,571.50	" Nov. 11,....	105,595.28
April,.....	8,062.28	" Dec. 9,....	73,467.10
4 weeks, ending May 27,....	58,239.42	3 " Dec. 30,....	809.41
" June 24,....	33,758.44		
" July 22,....	74,651.35	Total amount,.....	675,206.18
" Aug. 19,....	107,863.54		

The amount of salt duties paid into the canal fund, from 1817 to the 18th of July, 1836, is as follows :—

Year.	Amount.	Year.	Amount.
1817,.....	$2,926 28	1828,.....	$118,423 89
1818,.....	48,784 27	1829,.....	157,160 58
1819,.....	54,410 69	1830,.....	163,421 55
1820,.....	67,038 67	1831,.....	98,703 91
1821,.....	46,345 24	1832,.....	179,096 46
1822,.....	65,416 37	1833,.....	227,860 05
1823,.....	102,221 64	1834,.....	160,782 98
1824,.....	99,211 18	1835,.....	118,364 92
1825,.....	71,222 75	1836,.....	64,763 46
1826,.....	83,272 59		
1827,.....	126,030 58	Total,.....	$2,055,458 06

We subjoin a statement of the amount of salt imported into the United States during the year ending 30th September, 1842,* and the value

* For a similar statement for 1841, see article on the "Trade and Manufacture of Salt in the United States," Merchants' Magazine, for October, 1843, Vol. VIII., No. IV., p. 358.

thereof, and the country from whence imported, and the value per bushel:—

Whence imported.	Quantity. *Bushels.*	Val. per bush. *Cents.*	Tot. value.
Swedish West Indies,	7,535	6	$479
Danish West Indies,	19,291	8	1,466
Dutch West Indies,	212,894	8	16,208
England,	3,300,749	18	607,761
Scotland,	8,603	19	1,608
Ireland,	91,932	19	17,625
British West Indies,	1,307,080	8	102,479
British American colonies,	14,593	21	3,040
France on the Atlantic,	18,612	13	2,397
France on the Mediterranean,	43,024	6	2,665
French West Indies,	8,899	8	707
Spain on the Atlantic,	459,176	9	41,573
Spain on the Mediterranean,	39,888	6	2,332
Cuba,	382	22	83
Other Spanish West Indies,	1,627	6	97
Portugal,	429,567	8	32,572
Cape de Verd Islands,	4,982	8	397
Italy,	46,620	4	1,804
Sicily,	148,188	3	5,090
Mexico,	174	2	33
Cisplatine Republic,	1,761	14	251
Argentine "	12,104	6	716
Uncertain places,	1,062	18	189
Total,	6,178,743		$841,572

Art. V.—CONSULAR SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

In the senate of the United States, February 21, 1844, the Hon. James Semple, of Illinois, introduced a bill to remodel the consular establishment of the United States, which was read twice, referred to the committee of commerce, and ordered to be printed. An official copy of this bill is before us, the most important provisions of which are, that no person shall be appointed consul, vice consul, or commercial agent, who is not a citizen of the United States; that no consul or commercial agent, &c., shall directly or indirectly engage in commerce, or receive or share any profits thereof, under the penalty of being recalled, and fined in a sum not exceeding ten thousand dollars. Consuls are to receive, in lieu of commercial privileges, fixed salaries. Our present system is quite defective, but the reforms proposed in the bill appear to meet the demands of the mercantile community, and we earnestly hope it may become a law without any material alteration or amendment.

We have in our possession, in manuscript, a Treatise on Consuls, written by an American consul in the early part of the present century, now deceased; and as one of the chapters discusses some of the reforms proposed in this bill, we take the liberty of publishing it, for the benefit of our congressional readers.*

* The reader is also referred to an article on the Consular System of the United States, in the Merchants' Magazine, for April, 1842, Vol. VI., No. IV., pp. 297 to 305.

OUGHT NOT CONSULS TO BE DEBARRED FROM CARRYING ON TRADE AS MERCHANTS?

Under the present consular system of the United States, a consul may be a merchant; indeed, the consular office is considered and solicited by the far greater number of candidates, rather as the *means* of extending their commercial credit than the *end* to which they aspire. While this continues to be the case, and while human nature remains unchanged, can we hope to see the duties of that office discharged with that degree of independence and disinterestedness which ought to characterize the conduct of all officers of every government, and more especially those of the United States?

In a book, whose precepts we are all taught from our earliest infancy to revere, it is written: "No man can serve two masters, for either he will hate the one and love the other, or else he will hold to the one and despise the other;" and a modern French writer of eminence, in a work lately published, says, "Lorsque l'intérêt est appelé au conseil il fait changer de direction aux avis"—*When interest is called into counsel it gives a different direction to advice.* In what stronger terms can be painted the incompatibility of the duties of the consul with the interests of the merchant, united in the same person? It is the duty of the consul carefully to watch over the commercial interests of his country, to detect fraud and expose the abuses of the flag under whatever form, to extend his protection equally to all his fellow-citizens in the lawful pursuits of their business or their pleasure; and although, by the instructions from the department of state, the consuls of the United States are informed that no "judicial authority belongs to their office except what may be expressly given by a law of the United States," it nevertheless frequently happens that their amicable interference might produce the happiest effects in reconciling conflicting interests if referred to as umpires. But so long as the consul continues to be a merchant, how can it be expected that he should so far divest himself of human weakness as to decide with impartiality between two persons, one of whom it may be his own private interest to serve even at the expense of the other? For example, let us suppose two American ships entering a foreign port, one of which is consigned to the consul merchant; that during their stay in port, some altercation should take place between the masters of the two ships, and that the point in dispute should be referred to the consul of their country, the natural protector of the rights and interests of his fellow-citizens, and the organ of his government; is there anything unnatural in the conclusion that, unless the consul forms an exception to the great mass of mankind, his award will be inclined to favor, as far as possible without committing his reputation, the interests of the man whose ship is consigned to him as a merchant? If, instead of the case just supposed, the two captains should be involved in difficulties with the local authorities, a thing by no means impossible, can it be believed that the merchant consul would neglect his commercial concerns to extend an equal protection to the man in whom he has no immediate personal interest, and to him who, to use a vulgar expression, "brings a grist to his mill?"

In the American courts of justice, the wife is not permitted to give evidence for her husband. And the 91st section of the "act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage," provides, "that if any offi-

cer or other person entitled to a part or share of any of the fines, penalties, or forfeitures, incurred in virtue of this act, shall be necessary as a witness on the trial for such fine, penalty, or forfeiture, such officer or other person may be a witness upon the said trial; but in such case he shall not receive, nor be entitled to any part or share of the said fine, penalty, or forfeiture, and the part or share to which he otherwise would have been entitled shall revert to the United States." Thus, in this case, has the wisdom of the legislature precluded almost the possibility of interested *testimony*.

And yet, by a sort of anomaly, the American consul merchant, endowed with two separate and distinct characters, two souls in one body, can at one and the same time be a magistrate and witness in his own cause; as in the case of drawback certificates, the consul A. B. administers the oath to A. B., merchant and consignee, who kisses the book and signs the certificate in his quality of merchant; and then, assuming a magisterial air, "sets his hand and seal of office" to the same instrument in his quality of consul.

To this may be added the strife and animosity created by rival interests, which will inevitably exist between the merchant consul and his commercial countrymen residing in the same place; those bickerings, backbitings, and overreachings, which destroy social harmony between individuals of the same trade and nation, particularly in a foreign country;* and, by weakening the respect due to the man, weaken at the same time that due to the office.

When a public officer is subject to be treated with disrespect by his own countrymen, he will not long be respected by the inhabitants of the country where he resides; and it is, in my humble opinion, far better not to be represented abroad, than to subject our representatives to become "a laughing-stock and a by-word" in the places of their residence.

Interest, either direct or collateral, is the great governing principle of the mass of mankind. It is not contended that every man is guided by his immediate *pecuniary interest:* for instance, the man who refused a morsel of bread to a poor mendicant, was, I believe, no one will pretend to doubt, actuated by immediate pecuniary interest, and loved his money more than the pleasure he would have felt in doing good to the *temporal* state of a fellow being; but when the same man afterwards gave one hundred dollars towards the support of a theological seminary, he was no doubt influenced by an interest of a different nature. Here, the *spiritual* welfare of many of his fellow creatures was concerned; here, he would be likely to be cited as one of the worthy patrons of that noble institution, where youth "are trained up in the way they should go," and prepared to carry "the balm of peace and the word of salvation" to the utmost corners of the earth; by them, his fame could be spread as "before the four winds of heaven;" and it is evident that the satisfaction he would derive from having performed this laudable act, was greater than that which the hundred dollars could have procured him in any other way; while the common everyday act, of giving a piece of bread, could furnish no occupation to the busy tongue of fame—no criterion to judge of his

* I have been assured that a number of American merchants now resident at Marseilles, have become, from a similarity of pursuits and a spirit of commercial jealousy, so inimical towards each other that they do not speak together.

fortune and his generosity. In America, everybody can give a piece of bread, while comparatively few can afford to give a hundred dollars.

The English barber, who suffered his indigent father to perish in the street rather than to pay fifty pounds for his admission in the hospital, and who, in his last will, bequeathed two hundred pounds to the poor, doubtless felt more interest in transmitting his name and the record of his *generosity* to posterity, on his tombstone, than in performing an act of filial duty, the remembrance of which could not probably have long survived himself.

After this digression, which I have deemed necessary to show that by the word interest, money is not always meant, though it be a lamentable fact that many more people than would be willing to avow it strictly, follow the advice of the miser to his son, "GET MONEY!—honestly, if you can," I resume the thread of my inquiries.

Will it be believed that, during the existence of the Berlin and Milan decrees, the British orders in council, and the restrictive measures of our own government, no merchant consul of the United States, in foreign ports, took part in the collusive traffic carried on under our flag? Did not an American consul, in one of the principal ports of France, purchase an American ship that had been condemned by the imperial prize court, fraudulently obtain her original register, and finally procure for her a new register in the United States, in direct violation of our laws? Was not the same consul afterwards concerned in fitting out another ship from a port in France, which ship was similarly circumstanced, advertised her as a "*parlementaire*," and, in conjunction with a certain Mr. Boutet, and the house of Loriolle and Dagneau, of Dunkirk, most unconsciously cheat one hundred and fourteen passengers into the belief of their security, and after receiving the far greater portion of the passage money, put the ship to sea, where she was captured, and anchored a prize in England within twelve hours after leaving the port. And did he not make a verbal agreement with Henry Preble, an American merchant, then residing at Paris, and agent for the original owners of said ship, for her *register*, which he knew he could not lawfully hold, and was not the bargain broken off, because Henry Preble asked a larger sum for the register than was first agreed for? Did not the same American merchant consul, in the winter of 1811–12, send a number of trunks of merchandise to Cherbourg in the hope of being able to ship them on board a United States ship of war, to the United States; and did he not give instructions to his correspondent at Cherbourg, to offer the commander of the said ship one hundred dollars for every trunk, to receive them on board, in violation of the 23d article of the 1st section of the law of Congress, entitled "an act for the better government of the navy of the United States," passed on the 23d day of April, 1800, which provides that, "if any commander or other officer, shall receive, or permit to be received, on board his vessel, any goods or merchandise, other than for the sole use of his vessel, except gold, silver, or jewels, and except the goods or merchandise of vessels which may be in distress, or shipwrecked, or in imminent danger of being shipwrecked, in order to preserve them for their owner, without orders from the president of the United States, or the navy department, he shall, on conviction thereof, be cashiered, and be incapacitated, for ever afterwards, for any place or office in the navy."

Was not another American citizen, established as a merchant in a port

of France, where, for several years, he exercised the office of American consul, with the knowledge and consent of the American government, though without being constitutionally appointed, concerned in the license trade between France and England, a trade which, without being in direct violation of the letter of the United States laws, was, nevertheless, in evident contradiction to the *spirit* thereof? And did not the same gentleman, while in the exercise of the functions of United States consul, for the port of ——, and during the existence of war, as well between the United States and Great Britain, as between the latter power and France, go to England in the assumed character of *second mate* of a neutral ship, land at Plymouth, proceed to London to transact commercial business, and return to his port undetected?

Whether there was anything improper in this act or not, when considered in a merely commercial point of view, I shall not attempt to determine; but I have no hesitation in saying, and I believe every reflecting man will join with me, that it was highly improper in the consul. But, as has already been said, when speaking of Mr. Patterson, the principal fault lay with the government, for not providing for the support of consuls, and forbidding them to transact commercial business. It would be no very difficult task to multiply examples of the above nature to any desirable extent, but it is believed that these will be sufficient to convince any candid man of the impropriety of connecting the two characters of consul and merchant in the same person. If not, let it be remembered that, as I have already said, the consular office is considered as a secondary object, or rather as an accessary means of obtaining the great primary point, commercial consideration and consequent wealth. The merchant consul, occupied exclusively with his speculations, confides the discharge of his official duties to a clerk in his counting-house, and merely deigns to sign the papers prepared for his signature, without occupying himself with any of the details. It is true, he is obliged to give bonds, to the amount of two to ten thousand dollars, for the faithful discharge of the duties of his office. I believe more than two thousand dollars are never asked; but if any misdemeanors should be committed by the clerks, specially charged with this department, who is to prosecute, when it is well known that the trouble and expense of such a suit would far overbalance any emolument to be derived from its most fortunate issue? Besides, how easy would it be for the delinquent to plead, and to prove, in case of need, that the offence originated in a mistake, which pressure of commercial business did not permit him to discover and rectify?

In cases of great importance, some may be tempted to act upon the same principles with the master and owner of an American vessel, burnt at sea by a French squadron, and who preserved the vessel's register. He proposed selling the register, or applying it to another vessel not American. When it was observed to him that, by so doing, he would forfeit his bonds at the custom-house, he replied, "I do not mind forfeiting my bonds, if I can make double the sum by disposing of my register." And, in similar instances, what compensation would two thousand dollars be to the United States for the abuses which might be practised under their flag; and the want of consideration and respect which such acts might give rise to on the part of foreign nations, and which we could not, in justice, blame them for? And with what face could we call foreign

governments to an account for not respecting us, so long as we do not respect ourselves?

Does not the government know that, during our neutral carrying trade, many merchants, and among them some consul merchants, were concerned in covering property belonging to the belligerent nations, and did not those transactions tend greatly to lessen the respect paid to our flag? The situation in which we were then placed, in relation to the powers of Europe, is not likely again soon to recur; nevertheless, what has once happened may again happen, and if your consuls continue to be merchants, there can be but little doubt that some amongst the number will be found who will prefer their commercial emoluments to their official credit. A prudent pilot avails himself of the fine weather to put his ship in a situation to withstand the shocks of a tempest which he knows may succeed, though he does not know how soon.

A very celebrated writer has said, with great justice, that "a man should never be placed in a situation to balance between his interest and his integrity."

By the 86th section of the act, entitled "an act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage," passed on the 2d day of March, 1799, it is enacted, "that no officer of the customs or other person employed under the authority of the United States, in the collection of duties imposed by law on goods, wares, or merchandise, imported in the United States, and on the tonnage of ships or vessels, shall own, either in whole or in part, any ship or vessel, or act as agent, attorney, or consignee, for the owner or owners of any ship or vessel, or of any cargo or lading on board the same; nor shall any officers of the customs, or other person employed in the collection of the duties, as aforesaid, import, or be concerned directly or indirectly in the importation of any goods, wares, or merchandise, for sale, into the United States, on penalty that every person so offending, and being thereof convicted, shall forfeit and pay the sum of five hundred dollars."

It is believed that consuls should, in this respect, be assimilated to the officers of the customs, or that the law should be even more severe against the former, for this simple reason, that the officers of the customs being in the United States and subject to the lash of our free press, any malversation, on their part, would be immediately exposed to public animadversion and the censure of the government, whereas the consul, being at a distance, a considerable time must necessarily elapse, and abuses may be carried to a great length before government can be sufficiently informed of their existence to apply a remedy; besides, in all cases of this nature, a legal preventative is preferable to any remedy, however prompt, or however severe may be its application.

By the 5th section of the act of May 1st, 1810, it is enacted, "that, from and after the 1st day of November next, no consul of the United States, residing on the Barbary coast, shall own, in whole or in part, any ship or vessel, to be concerned directly or indirectly in the exportation from, or the importation to, any of the states of Barbary, of any goods, wares, or merchandise, on penalty, that every consul so offending, and being thereof convicted, shall for every offence forfeit a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars."

This law, while it excludes consuls, on the Barbary coast, from owning ships engaged in trade with the places of their residence, permits, be-

cause it does not forbid them, to own ships in any other trade, and to be commission merchants, or to import and export merchandise as much as they please for their own account, provided it be done in other people's vessels.

Nevertheless, if this law, with all its imperfections, had been extended to all other consuls, it would have been advancing one step towards the goal at which we ought to aim.

Consuls ought not to be allowed to own ships, because such ships will not, in time of war, be considered as neutral, if the owner resides in a belligerent country. And to permit them to hold registered ships, is a measure equally impolitic and unjust on the part of the government; it is impolitic, because, until the maritime powers of Europe consent to insert a new article in the law of nations, the nation must go to war to protect the property of its consuls, and thus subject a still greater number of ships to be captured. It is unjust, because the government implicitly promises an equal protection to all ships which it allows to bear the national flag, an engagement which it has it not in its power to fulfil, in relation to ships owned by consuls. Thus, in permitting them to hold registered ships, it leads them into a false security respecting the safety of their property, which, in reality, is not more safe under the flag of their country than it would be under that of the belligerent power in whose dominions they reside.

Sir William Scott, in pronouncing judgment on the ship "Indian Chief," says,* no position is more established than this, that if a person goes into another country, "and engages in trade, and resides there, he is, by the law of nations, to be considered as a merchant of that country." Again, in his judgment on the cargo of the same ship, p. 27, he says: "These cases were again brought forward to notice, in the case of *Mr. Fenwick, American consul* at Bordeaux, in the beginning of this war; on whose behalf a distinction was set up in favor of American consuls, as being persons not usually appointed as the consuls of other nations are, from among the resident merchants of the foreign country, but specially delegated from *America*, and sent to *Europe* principally in a mere consular character. But in that case, as well as in the case of *Sylvanus Bourne, American consul* at Amsterdam, where the same distinction was attempted, it was held that, if an American consul *did* engage in commerce, there was no more reason for giving his mercantile character the benefit of his official character, than existed in the case of any other consul. The moment he engaged in trade, the pretended ground of any distinction ceased; the whole of that question, therefore, is as much shut up and concluded as any question of law can be."

It may indeed be doubted whether, in justice or sound policy, we ought to wish the establishment of a principle which would exempt the ships of the merchant consul from the operation of hostilities against the country of his residence; its adoption would open a wide field to fraud and double dealing; and the consul, however honest, surrounded as he would be by temptation, and perhaps, also, by a needy family, would, it is greatly to be feared, give but too much reason to say of him, "the spirit indeed was willing, but the flesh was weak."

Our venerable Adams, who was always a sound republican at heart,

* 5 Robinson's Admiralty Reports, vol. iii., p. 18.

but who, unfortunately, had too much confidence in Hamilton, Pickering, &c., in his letter to the immortal Washington, under date of August 29th, 1790, published in Niles' Weekly Register, when speaking of our diplomatic establishment, says: "It is a misfortune that, in these critical moments and circumstances, the United States have not a minister of *large views, mature age, information and judgment, and strict integrity,* at the courts of France, Spain, London, and the Hague; early and authentic intelligence from those courts, may be of more importance than the expense. But as the representatives of the people, as well as of the legislatures, are of a different opinion, they have made a very scanty provision for but a part of such a system. As it is, God knows where the men are to be found who are qualified for such missions and would undertake them. By an experience of ten years, which made me too unhappy at the time to be ever forgotten, I know that every artifice which can deceive, every temptation which can operate on hope or fear, ambition or avarice, pride or vanity, the love of society, pleasure, or amusement, will be employed to divert and warp them from the true line of their duty, and the impartial honor and interest of their country!"

This reasoning will apply to consuls with equal force. The lessons of the moralist and the preachings of the divine, inculcating abstinence and self-denial, cannot change our nature, nor strength of mind overcome our physical wants. The stomach has strong claims upon the attention of the *man.*

Besides the *inconveniences* above stated, there is another consideration of equal importance to deter from conferring on merchants the appointment of consuls; this is their liability, like all other merchants, to bankruptcy. It has already been shown, that instances of merchant consuls becoming bankrupts are not rare, and it is only necessary here to examine some of the consequences of a state of bankruptcy.

The 614th article of the commercial code of France stands thus: "No merchant who has failed shall appear on the exchange, unless he has obtained his restoration."* And the 605th article, explaining how that restoration is to be obtained, says: "The demandant shall be required to join to his petition the acquittances and other documents, in proof of his having fully satisfied all his creditors, in principal, interests, and costs."†

Let us not conclude that, because a man bears the commission of the president of the United States, as consul for any part of France, he will be exempted from the effect of this law. If we should for a moment indulge that belief, Valin will soon dissipate the error: "But in France, the consuls themselves, if they are engaged in trade, by reason of which they contract engagements, are subject to the jurisdiction of the tribunals of the kingdom, and may be prosecuted before the competent authority, without being able to plead the privilege of the consulate. Hence it follows that, being condemned to pay on pain of arrestation, they may be imprisoned in default of payment. The interest of commerce required that it should be so, and this is a reservation which the king never fails to make in the letters of *exequatur* which he grants to foreign consuls."‡

Now let us suppose that an American consul merchant in France, from

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* Rodmond's translation. † Ibid.

‡ Valin, Comentaire sur l'ordonnance de la Marine, Liv. I. Tit. IX. des consuls, &c., Art. XII., vol. i., p. 254.

no matter what cause, finds himself in a state of insolvency, and that, before he shall have obtained his *restoration*, a ship arrives consigned to him; will not the interests of the concerned be likely to suffer from his inability to appear on the usual place of transacting mercantile business—the only common, proper, and *legal* resort of merchants? And is there nothing humiliating to the feelings of a citizen of the United States, to see the representative of his government afraid to appear on the public exchange, where he cannot go without subjecting himself to be kicked off by the first man who feels disposed to avail himself of the privileges of the law?

Let us suppose still farther, that a judgment is obtained against him, and he committed to prison, a figure which, after reading the above extracts, requires no great stretch of imagination; can it be supposed that the consul merchant can afford any protection to either the commerce or citizens of his country, while he is himself confined by bolts and bars? And is it not inconsistent with the dignity of our government to permit its agents to be exposed to be placed in similar situations? Add to this, that merchants who build their hopes of consignments on their official character, are almost always disappointed; they uniformly find that, whatever might have been their hopes or their expectations, the only advantage they derive from their office is more or less respect from the local authorities. All the merchants who are in the practice of shipping goods to foreign ports, have their correspondents in those ports, and if any vessels arrive without a consignee, they are consigned by the captain and supercargo to the house which will make the largest advances; and as very few American consuls are able to hold a competition with many houses in their port, it is exceedingly rare that they obtain a consignment. As a proof of what I advance, I will cite a few names of American consuls in different parts of Europe.

Sylvanus Bourne, after having held the office of consul of the United States ever since the year 1792, died in a state of indigence, in April, 1817. One would think that twenty-five years public service ought to entitle a man to a piece of bread in the decline of life, and to a decent burial, when dead. General Lyman, the sailor's friend, died insolvent in the consulship of London, and his daughters, like those of our late worthy consul at l'Orient, (Mr. Vail,) repaired to the United States, where, to their honor be it said, they opened a boarding-school, and applied the exercise of those accomplishments, which parental fondness had given them for their amusement, to the support of their widowed mother.

In short, among all the consuls named by the United States government, I do not recollect more than three who have not grown poorer during the exercise of their consulship; these are Mr. Ridgway, at Antwerp, Mr. Jarvis, at Lisbon, and Mr. Harris, at St. Petersburg. These gentlemen returned to the United States with large fortunes; they were the first American merchants established in their respective ports; which ports, owing to political circumstances, had a great flow of American trade, and they became rich by their commerce, not by the emoluments of their offices.

No man in his senses, who is acquainted with the real emoluments and advantages of an American consulate, would leave the United States to fill the office, in no matter what port, unless he was already interested, or was sure of being admitted to an interest in some house established in that port.

Art. VI.—INFLUENCE OF COMMERCE ON EDUCATION.

The following remarks are from an address delivered before Lyceums, or Institutes for Education, at Portsmouth, Exeter, Baltimore, Annapolis, and Washington, by the Hon. Levi Woodbury. The address ably discusses the remedies for certain defects in American education; and in the passages quoted, Mr. Woodbury maintains that a wider extension of free commerce is calculated to promote increased information among all classes:—

Commerce teaches often, by example, even more effectually than books do by precept. Whether foreign or domestic, it is, whenever easy, frequent and active, calculated to pour a flood of light into the human mind, on almost every subject; and to strike it with the more force, as it is light from practice—light from actual experiment—light from living and embodied excellence. No matter whether the defects in our education relate to politics, religion, literature, the sciences, or the arts—in all of them, precept, compared with example, is uncertainty and doubt, compared with reality. Example is theory verified, and therefore when seen by travel or commerce, as new example often is, it becomes more convincing than the strongest argument. Hence the proverbial advantages arising from good companions and foreign travel.

These considerations, on a broader scale, apply to nations, as well as individuals; and each nation, by free commerce within itself, makes the merits of every part better known to the rest, and enables every part to profit by the excellencies of the whole. Following out the same analogies, we can see that, through a liberal commercial intercourse—not only each nation, but every continent, and the globe itself, can derive from all portions some useful hints—some useful customs—some useful arts or useful laws. Frequently what otherwise would to foreigners be born "to waste its fragrance on the desert air," thus becomes known and beneficial to all. Again, commerce, free and unshackled, supplies wants, comforts, and luxuries, whether to the savage or civilized, and whether near at hand or at the antipodes; and, in this way, by rendering the surplus productions of all countries more valuable in exchange, it helps to excite, encourage and reward the very highest exertions of both body and mind. It thus aids to educate all in most important particulars. It rouses industry in the indolent; animates the torpid to enterprise; expands the views of the recluse; civilizes the roughest, and inspires rivalship in the most sluggish. It assists to propagate new opinions and a new faith, under both the equator and the poles; fertilizes every region not covered with eternal snows; and pushing human improvement in all its varied forms, penetrates remotest seas, and crosses the Andes, the Alps, and the Himmalayan, almost as daringly as the Alleghanies. The moderns have hardly done justice to former ages in relation to their immense inland trade, enlightening and civilizing wherever it spread—whether up the Nile from Egypt, or into the remotest Ind from Tyre, and thence from Carthage to distant Britain, and in time over-reaching the Atlantides, discovering, under the more adventurous Genoese, a new continent, and gradually pervading the whole western hemisphere.

The moderns have, to be sure, since entered the farthest isles of the Pacific, and are exploring the ice of both poles; but it is probable they

at last must sigh that there are no more worlds to find and civilize which are worth the search.

One illustration of the enterprise and educating character of commerce, when free, has recently come under my own eye, that may not be without interest to you, in connection with this topic.

During the last autumn, in a small town in the interior of Massachusetts, I found American lead, which had been dug partly by Yankee industry and adventure in the remote wilderness of Wisconsin or Missouri. The same industry and adventure had not only helped to dig, but had transported it through the active channels of commerce, a circuit of more than two thousand miles from the mighty west to the rocky east; and that on routes unknown but a few years ago to anything but the fearless hunter, or the birchen canoe. Fed partly by meat from the same distant source, and corn from the south, and flour from the middle states (fruits of the same commercial enterprise) they were zealously occupied in making this lead into water pipes for operations still more distant, and not a little extraordinary.

What, think you, was to be one of their principal markets? Some of this lead was manufacturing by special order, to be freighted again, under the same Yankee perseverence, not only two thousand miles, but nearly half the circumference of the globe. It was to double the stormy Cape Horn—twice cross the equator, and find its pathless way over new seas into the remote Sandwich islands. And for what use?

To advance again, as a labor-saving machine, the commercial interests of the same spirit, which had untiringly explored the forests, whence the raw material was obtained. It was in the form of pipes, to conduct water more cheaply and conveniently on board our whale-ships, which, with others, resort so frequently to those islands for their necessary supplies.

The mode of paying for it, evinces, with perhaps greater strength, the instructive influence of commerce. It was to be paid for by taking in exchange, partly sugar, cotton, and oil, the products of new native labor and skill among a people not long before (scarce two-thirds of a century) barbarous in the extreme, and murdering the immortal navigator who first discovered and blessed them with some elements of civilization. But now, under the teaching and stimulants of commerce—transporting thither, as everywhere else, over the whole habitable globe—the new sense of duty, inspired by the religion of the cross, they are advanced somewhat in letters, agriculture and the arts, as well as engaging considerably in commerce itself.

Another influence of free commerce on the education of a people, has been, to confer increased value on all other kinds of labor, and thus develop more mental activity and vigor, as well as carefulness, toil, and perseverance in their pursuit. Thus one nation may be more agricultural, or more manufacturing, but it is commerce either from abroad or at home, which alone can secure a high degree of prosperity to either of those great branches of industry. For by that they are principally stimulated and increased, so as to furnish the chief materials for trade, as that alone gives to those materials, when beyond what the meagre necessities of life demand, their principal value. It thus encourages their extensive production; thus animates the mind to new discoveries and useful inventions for their progress, and helps to improve all the arts and skill by

which they attain any high degree of excellence. Destroy commerce, and most of what now polishes, adorns, or enriches, as well as enlightens the world, would degenerate into mere exertion for daily existence. Without its talismanic power, the plough would almost sleep in the furrow; the shuttle in the loom. The labor-saving machine would be inanimate, and as useless as the mighty pillar of stone in its native quarry, before moulded under the powers of art into the splendid edifice—the colossal bridge—the lofty aqueduct—or the heroic column. There might, to be sure, without commerce, be some separate pieces of the vast chain of civilization, but no connecting link, to impart strength and usefulness to the whole. Man would, of course, still exist, but he would rather vegetate than live. He would resemble the oyster more than that glorious being, akin to angels, and described by Shakspeare as "so noble in reason" and so "infinite in faculties." The mind, in such a torpid, uneducated, unexcited, unrepaired condition, as exists without commerce, is like a house without inhabitants, or a stream studded with busy manufactories, become abandoned, and thus, ere long, converted into desolate ruins and stagnant pools. The intellect deteriorates, as the thronged city, when deserted and unvisited by the hum of commerce. Its streets, soon become covered with grass, and even forests; its market places, choked up with rubbish; its warehouses, crumbled under cobwebs and moss, into mouldering dust; and, in time, through mere abandonment, scarcely one stone left on another of its gorgeous mansions, any more than if some Attila had passed over them the ploughshare of Vandal conquest.

How many men, in more advanced life, become, in this way, by mere inaction, the ruined Thebes and Balbecs of what they once were? their minds, by neglect alone, a wilderness that has uprooted everything beautiful or great. They seem full of mutilated statuary, fallen temples, overturned walls, like the mysterious sites of Copan or Uxmal in the central portions of our own continent.

Usefully there may perhaps be some cloistered seclusion for religious meditation, or solitude for literary researches and philosophical experiment, when those are thus pursued, not in torpor, but animated by motives the most ardent, and encouraged by eager intentions of maturing what will prove good; and the results, ere long, to be ushered to an applauding world, the more perfect, as less interrupted by other avocations. But, as a general rule, shut up a hermit in his cell, or a victim of state in some Bastile; and allow to neither, books, companions, or employment; and the process of education, thus suspended, and both of them virtually without intellectual commerce, they would not merely halt in improvement, but degenerate; and, ere long, lose even the power of speech itself, or talk an unintelligible tongue. Indeed, without regard to peculiar exceptions, inactive seclusion in man, or a non-intercourse with his race, leads to death. It is its symbol and companion as well as cause. Fortunately it is an inexorable law of our nature, and one of its great teachers, that to fulfil his high destiny, man must be social, and at the same time active. "By ceaseless action all that is, exists." The commercial spirit does most towards this, because it is the most restless, vivifying, adventurous, and busy of any which agitates society. Commercial intercourse, also obliterates prejudices, as well as furnishes new suggestions and excitements, new longings and desires. Collision stimulates. Experience hardens. They all prevent mould and moth, as well as rust. Besides

this, commerce is both ever growing, and ever improving. We often see that the exercise of one faculty, one sense, or one limb increases its activity and power. So the public mind, as a whole, in any country, when more awakened and exercised by a series of new objects or examples in commerce, augments in freshness and ardor no less than vigor and keenness, till the wider diffusion and higher perfection of knowledge among all, are produced; and, in turn, produce a people distinguished in every quarter of the globe, and push forward a few to such exalted acquirements as to become statesmen, lawgivers, and philosophers, little below demigods in history and power. Men are thus educated to be liberal, likewise, as well as elevated. Novel and bold opinions in politics or religion soon cease to be contraband articles in the enlarged intercourse between nations. Restrictions on efforts by others, or on fair competition of any kind, are gradually prostrated.

Prohibitory laws as to trade—colonial vassalage in business—severe penalties against free enterprise and free industry—onerous taxes or burthens on either exports or imports—harshness to foreigners—Chinese exclusion—Japanese intolerance—barbarous prejudices against strangers—all are in time softened down, and must be dispelled by the magic wand of commerce. If luxury or voluptuous manners are sometimes promoted by it, which is not improbable, it is only the occasional evil, often inseparable from the permanent good; and injures it little more than the spots on the face of the sun obscure its light to us, or lessen its refulgent glories to the whole solar system.

Art. VII.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

HOWQUA, THE SENIOR HONG MERCHANT.*

Howqua, the senior Hong merchant, expired at Canton on the 4th September, 1843. His biography would include all the important events connected with the foreign trade during the last thirty years; hence we shall confine ourselves to a few remarks on the character and conduct of the deceased.

Howqua was descended from a respectable Fo-kien family, long resident in the principal black tea district, and his grandfather was one of the Amoy Hong, who, with the progenitors of the Canton Hong merchants, Poon-ke-qua, Chunc-qua, and Min-qua, were ordered by the emperor to remove to Canton, when all intercourse was forbidden with the English and Dutch at the port of Amoy.

Howqua had attained his seventy-fifth year when he died, and for a long time has been in a feeble state of health, with extremely attenuated frame, but with an unimpaired intellectual vigor up to his last illness. His fortune is estimated variously, but it is believed he has large investments in the British and foreign funds; and we know that a twelvemonth since, one of the most intimate of his foreign friends expressed his belief that Howqua was then worth at least $25,000,000: except a small portion, the whole is the result of his own industry and enterprise.

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* From the "Friend of China and Hong Kong Gazette," of September 14th, 1843.

The attack of the British on Canton during the last war, inflicted considerable injury on Howqua: the value of the pack houses and their contents, which were then destroyed, amounted alone to $1,000,000, and Howqua used to affirm that the war had inflicted on him a loss of $2,000,000. His proportion of the Canton ransom was $800,000. It was after this event that he prayed the emperor to be permitted to retire from his position as a Hong merchant, respectfully tendering at the same time what he called all his wealth, viz., 2,500,000 taels, which, he said, all accrued to him from the emperor's bounty, and supplicated the imperial will to accord him such portion thereof as its heavenly benevolence deemed fit to maintain him during the wretched remnant of his life. This petition was refused.

It must, however, be observed, that the Chinese government had the greatest confidence in Howqua, who, to the last, retained an inveterate aversion to new customs and modern fashions, whilst he clung with the most conservative tenacity to the old corrupt system, by which his vast wealth was mainly accumulated.

Howqua was the guardian and comptroller of the Kong-soo fund, and the organ of communication between the government and the foreign merchants. He possessed vast power and influence among his countrymen, was a large landed proprietor, and had founded and endowed a temple to Buddha in the suburbs of Canton. It was supposed that the refusal of Howqua's prayer to retire into private life was owing to the late war, and the claims which the government might have on his services at such a crisis. We *believe the truth was, that besides* the undeniable influence Howqua possessed, yet his notorious wealth and success was the cause of his detention. The local mandarins, and perhaps, also, some at Pekin, were well aware that Howqua was made of *squeezeable materials*, and as long as he occupied his onerous post, they could often test his qualities in that respect.

As a merchant, we believe the deceased could be favorably contrasted with the most eminent that Europe has produced. It seems almost incredible, but not less true, that, to the last, he directed his vast and complicated trade, which almost encircled the globe, alone. His knowledge, and even familiarity with mercantile details connected with the trade of foreign ports, was truly astonishing; sound judgment, true prudence, wary circumspection, and a wise economy, were distinguishing traits of his mercantile character.

By Englishmen, Howqua was not liked. His predilections were American, and justly so, we think, seeing that he was indebted in an early stage of his career to a citizen of that country, for information he sought in vain from the English; and, moreover, the monopoly of the East India Company rendered an American association preferable in a pecuniary sense to any English connection.

It is alleged by his friends, that Howqua would never consent to evade the duties, or smuggle any kind of goods. We doubt this, as he had branch houses at Soochow, Ningpo, Shanghai, and other opulent cities in China. It is hardly credible that he could successfully carry on his business there, with competitors who did smuggle whenever they had the opportunity, and which the notorious venality of the authorities rendered quite the rule, rather than the exception.

In conclusion, we are glad to record a gratifying fact, which will em-

ory of old Howqua. Since the difficulties about the opium wholly abstained from touching the "unclean thing." Directly, he has uniformly refused again engaging in this h he might have added millions upon millions to his s is no mean testimony to his patriotism, and his respect and regulations of his country. As a type of the old Chinese conservative of the "purest ray serene"—the ua will, perhaps, be deemed by his sovereign and country as a positive national calamity.

reg... death of ...

Art. VIII.—CITIES AND TOWNS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Increase of the thirty-six principal cities and towns.

The first two of the following tables will show the population of all the cities and towns in the United States in 1830 and 1840, containing over 10,000 inhabitants each, in 1840, according to the census; and also the increase of their population from 1830 to 1840, in the order of their greatest proportional increase. In the third table, besides the population of the states in which there are cities of this size, and their increase from 1830 to 1840, is contained the aggregate of the population of these cities respectively, in each state, with the increase in the order of the greatest increase, and the proportion per cent of their population, in 1830 and 1840, to that of the states respectively. It will be perceived that, with the exception of Maine and South Carolina, there has been an increase of this proportion in all these states; and that the average increase has been about 2 per cent. It will also be perceived that the increase of the population in the thirteen remaining states and territories has been, during the ten years, almost double what it has been in those states which contain cities or towns of 10,000 inhabitants. It will also be perceived that the increase of these thirty-six cities and towns has been over 1 per cent greater than that of the population of the whole country, during the ten years from 1830 to 1840. In other words, the population of these cities was 7.26 per cent of that of the whole country in 1830, and 8.34 per cent in 1840.

The fourth table is added to show the population and its increase, from 1830 to 1840, in the thirteen states and territories not specified in the preceding tables, in the order of their great increase, except the territories of Iowa and Wisconsin.

The influences of manufactures and commerce have been the chief causes, not merely to build up and sustain these cities, but also to have produced this large increase in these cities, and are particularly manifest in some of them. In the first table, Lowell stands at the head, dependent upon manufactures. The next is Brooklyn, which is a suburb of New York city, and with it derives its support and prosperity from commerce. Rochester is indebted to both sources of prosperity; while New Orleans, (dependent, for the most part, upon commerce alone,) Cincinnati, Louisville, and Pittsburgh, are advanced largely by both commerce and manufactures. Charleston alone decreased, during the ten years from 1830 to 1840. It is obvious that the cities and towns in the second table are indebted for their growth mainly to the influences of commerce and manu-

factures. The increase of Mobile, at the head of this list, was 296 per cent; while that of Salem, whose business has been, to a considerable extent, merged in that of Boston, was only 8 per cent during this period.

Those who are conversant with the transactions of commerce, and the manufactures of our country, especially with the commerce of the different states, will readily perceive what have been the principal causes of the increase of these cities and towns during these ten years, and will be able to form some opinion respecting the amount of their business and growth hereafter.

TABLE I.

Cities.	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census in 1840.
Lowell, Mass.,	6,474	14,322	221.22	20,796
Brooklyn, N. Y.,	15,394	20,839	135.37	36,233
Rochester, N. Y.,	9,207	10,984	119.30	20,191
New Orleans, La.,	49,826	52,367	105.09	102,193
Cincinnati, O.,	24,831	21,507	86.61	46,338
Louisville, Ky.,	12,564	8,646	68.81	21,210
Pittsburgh, Pa.,	12,568	8,547	67.00	21,115
New York, N. Y.,	202,589	110,121	54.25	312,710
Boston, Mass.,	61,392	31,991	52.10	93,383
Albany, N. Y.,	24,209	9,512	39.29	33,721
Providence, R. I.,	16,833	6,338	37.65	23,171
Philadelphia, Pa.,	188,797	69,240	36.67	258,037
Baltimore, Md.,	80,620	21,693	26.90	102,313
Richmond, Va.,	16,060	4,093	25.48	20,153
Washington, D. C.,	18,826	4,538	24.10	23,364
Total, in 15 cities,	740,190	394,738	53.32	1,134,928
Charleston, S. C.,	30,289	Loss, 1,028	3.39	29,261
Total, 16 cities,	770,479	393,710	51.09	1,164,189

TABLE II.

Cities and Towns.	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.
Mobile, Ala.,	3,194	9,478	296.74	12,672
Allegheny, Pa.,	2,801	7,288	260.19	10,089
St. Louis, Mo.,	5,852	10,617	181.42	16,469
Buffalo, N. Y.,	8,668	9,545	110.11	18,213
Watervliet, N. Y.,	4,962	5,179	104.37	10,141
Troy, N. Y.,	11,556	7,778	67.30	19,334
Springfield, Mass.,	6,784	4,201	61.92	10,985
New Bedford, Mass.,	7,592	4,495	59.20	12,087
Salina, N. Y.,	6,929	4,084	58.94	11,013
Newark, N. J.,	10,953	6,337	57.85	17,290
Utica, N. Y.,	8,323	4,459	53.57	12,782
Savannah, Ga.,	7,303	3,911	53.55	12,214
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.,	7,222	2,784	38.54	10,006
Petersburgh, Va.,	8,322	2,814	33.81	11,136
Charlestown, Mass.,	8,783	2,701	30.75	11,484
New Haven, Ct.,	10,180	2,780	27.30	12,960
Fishkill, N. Y.,	8,292	2,145	25.86	10,437
Portland, Me.,	12,598	2,620	20.79	15,218
Norfolk, Va.,	9,814	1,106	11.26	10,920
Salem, Mass.,	13,895	1,187	8.54	15,082
Total, 20 cities and towns,	164,023	95,509	58.22	259,532
" 16 cities,	770,479	393,710	51.09	1,164,189
Total, 36 cities and towns,	934,502	489,219	52.35	1,423,721
" U. S., exc'pt 36 cit. & towns,	11,931,518	3,708,114	31.07	15,639,632
Total population of the U. States,	12,866,020	4,197,333	32.62	17,063,353

TABLE III.

STATES.	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.	No. of cities.	Census of cities and towns in 1840.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census of cities and towns in 1840.	Proportion of population of cities and towns to that of the states, per cent.	
Alabama,	309,527	281,229	90.85	590,756	1	3,194	9,478	296.74	12,672	1.03	2.14
Missouri,	140,455	243,247	173.18	383,702	1	5,852	10,617	181.42	16,469	4.16	4.29
Louisiana,	215,739	136,672	63.35	352,411	1	49,826	52,367	105.09	102,193	23.09	28.29
Ohio,	937,903	581,564	62.00	1,519,467	1	24,831	21,507	86.61	46,338	2.64	3.04
Kentucky,	687,917	91,911	13.36	779,828	1	12,564	8,646	68.81	21,210	1.82	2.71
New York,	1,918,608	510,313	26.59	2,428,921	11	307,351	187,430	60.98	494,781	16.01	20.37
New Jersey,	320,823	52,483	16.35	373,306	1	10,953	6,337	57.85	17,290	3.41	4.63
Massachusetts,	610,408	127,291	20.85	737,699	6	104,920	58,897	56.13	163,817	17.18	22.20
Georgia,	516,823	174,569	33.77	691,392	1	7,303	3,911	53.55	11,214	1.41	1.62
Pennsylvania,	1,348,233	375,800	27.87	1,724,033	3	204,166	85,075	41.66	289,241	15.14	16.77
Rhode Island,	97,199	11,631	11.96	108,830	1	16,833	6,338	37.65	23,171	17.31	21.29
Connecticut,	297,675	12,303	4.13	309,978	1	10,180	2,780	27.30	12,960	3.41	4.18
Maryland,	447,040	22,979	5.14	470,019	1	80,620	21,693	26.90	102,313	18.03	21.76
District of Columbia,	39,834	3,878	9.73	43,712	1	18,826	4,538	24.10	23,364	47.26	53.44
Virginia,	1,211,405	28,392	2.34	1,239,797	3	34,196	8,013	23.43	42,209	2.82	3.40
Maine,	399,455	102,338	25.61	501,793	1	12,598	2,620	20.79	15,218	3.15	Loss 3.08
15 states, and District of Columbia,	9,499,044	2,756,600	29.01	12,255,644	35	904,213	490,247	54.21	1,394,460	9.51	11.37
South Carolina,	581,185	13,213	2.27	594,398	1	30,289	Loss 1,028	3.39	29,261	5.21	4.92
16 states, and District of Columbia,	10,080,229	2,769,813	27.47	12,850,042	36	934,502	489,219	52.35	1,423,721	9.27	11.79
13 states and territories,	2,780,473	1,432,838	51.53	4,213,311	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
30 states and territories,	12,860,702	4,202,651	32.67	17,063,353	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Naval service,	5,318	782	14.70	6,100	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total, of the United States,	12,866,020	4,203,433	32.62	17,069,453	...	934,502	489,219	.....	1,423,721	7.26	8.34

TABLE IV.

States and Territories.	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.
Michigan,	31,639	180,628	570.90	212,267
Arkansas,	30,388	67,186	221.09	97,574
Illinois,	157,445	318,738	202.44	476,183
Mississippi,	136,621	239,030	174.95	375,651
Indiana,	343,031	342,835	99.94	685,866
Florida Territory,	34,730	19,747	56.85	54,477
Tennessee,	681,904	147,306	21.60	829,210
New Hampshire,	269,328	15,246	5.66	284,574
Vermont,	280,652	11,296	4.02	291,948
North Carolina,	737,987	15,432	2.09	753,419
Delaware,	76,748	1,337	1.74	78,085
Iowa,	.....	43,112	.....	43,112
Wisconsin,	.....	30,945	.....	30,945
13 states and territories,	2,780,473	1,432,838	51.53	4,213,311
16 states and Dist. of Columbia,	10,080,229	2,769,813	27.47	12,850,042
30 states and territories,	12,860,702	4,202,651	32.67	17,063,353
Naval service,	5,318	782	14.70	6,100
Population of the United States,	12,866,020	4,203,433	32.62	17,069,453

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

SINCE our last number, the business of the spring has considerably progressed. The great thoroughfares through which the trade of the country moves, conveying to market the produce of the interior, and reconveying to the interior, for consumption, its equivalent, in domestic goods and imported merchandise, have gradually been opening, under the influence of the fine spring weather; and a corresponding effect upon the markets of the Atlantic cities has been produced. The large imports of the first quarter of the present year have furnished good supplies, and fair assortments, to meet the demand to replenish stocks; which, in the interior, must have become pretty well reduced, by reason of the long stagnation which has prevailed in business. The imports of the United States for the year 1843, were exceedingly small, as compared with the previous years, as seen in the following table, from House Document No. 306, showing the value of merchandise imported into the United States in the first three quarters of 1843, as compared with the average of two preceding terms, of four years each:—

Average value of leading Articles of Merchandise imported, for the years 1837, 1838, *and* 1839. *Also, for the years* 1840, 1841, *and* 1842; *and from October* 1, 1842, *to June* 30, 1843, *(being three-quarters of the year* 1843,) *paying ad valorem and specific duties.*

Names of Articles.	Av. importations of years 1837, 1838, and 1839.	Av. importations of years 1840, 1841, and 1842.	Actual importations for 3 quarters of 1843.
Wool, coarse, costing 7 c. pr. lb., and under,	$558,458	$759,646	$193,984
All other, unmanufactured,	801,087	1,004,312	54,695
Manufactures of, except carpeting,	5,551,389	5,676,452	1,472,381
Carpets,	517,020	308,766	181,810
Blankets, not over 75 cents each,	558,830	304,363	29,996
All others,	528,652	305,152	171,458
Worsted, all not specified,	4,769,873	2,033,181	456,051
Flannels, except cotton,	118,281	62,372	17,779
" bockings and baizes,	69,241	68,932	19,670
Cotton, manufactures of,	10,345,615	8,710,631	531,988
" Not over 30 c., valued at 30 c.,	.....	.....	1,739,318
Silk, manufactures of,	16,428,010	12,705,822	2,719,175
Hemp, unmanufactured,	534,688	505,221	228,882
Flax, linens,	5,200,225	4,569,017	1,202,772

Average value of leading Articles of Merchandise imported, etc.—Continued.

Names of Articles.	Av. importations of years 1837, 1838, and 1839.	Av. importations of years 1840, 1841, and 1842.	Actual importations for 3 quarters of 1843.
Iron, in bars,	$1,745,878	$1,448,620	$327,550
" rolled,	2,526,556	1,977,793	511,281
" pig,	342,442	211,044	48,251
" sheet, " hoop,	355,866	302,854	132,322
" saddlery,	233,368	113,515	27,097
" wood-screws of,	139,797	127,994	7,551
Steel, cast, shear, or German, in bars,	687,985	578,411	185,907
Plated and gilt wire, of all kinds,	312,746	430,942	30,687
Hardware,	4,597,871	3,094,131	751,306
Tin, in pigs,	378,699	259,566	82,164
" in plates or sheets,	984,155	985,552	577,731
Coal,	362,143	379,075	116,312
Wares, China,	240,943	171,156	53,985
" earthen and stone,	1,656,455	1,530,391	534,051
Raw hides, on all skins pickled and in casks, not specified,	2,833,779	3,427,092	2,328,071
Manufactures of leather,	777,158	700,890	24,236
Furs, undressed,	570,683	578,051	77,116
Watches, or parts of do.,	841,594	411,780	261,038
Rags,	497,665	599,712	79,853
Sugar, brown, raw,	7,178,578	5,927,690	2,426,011
" brown, clayed, " clayed and clarified,	1,507,598	988,896	64,932
Molasses,	389,406	2,493,961	1,134,820
Cocoa,	163,341	171,828	111,093
Nutmegs,	142,600	87,556	14,688
Chinese cassia,	58,146	46,206	59,104
Pimento,	157,406	82,466	47,441
Black pepper,	217,012	137,899	95,988
Indigo,	801,087	1,010,364	476,201
Raisins, muscatel, or bloom,	725,756	733,601	276,164
" all other kinds,	204,661	117,727	38,694
Salt,	922,709	892,831	710,489
Saltpetre, partially refined,	355,035	324,868	.....
Bleaching powder,	.....	.....	59,205
Spirits, from grain,	435,080	338,119	121,547
" from other materials,	1,288,301	1,069,436	32,095
Wine, Madeira,	585,201	253,465	9,075
" Sherry,	215,013	108,952	6,491
Cigars, of all kinds,	1,028,502	994,793	463,431

This presents a great and marked reduction in the quantities of the leading articles of foreign goods consumed within the United States. The aggregate values of dutiable imports, with the amount of duties collected, were as follows:—

	Value of imports.	Duties collected.	Rate of duty, per cent.
Specific duties,	$12,494,340	$6,390,449	51.15
Ad valorem duties,	16,684,875	4,153,686	24.89
Total,	$29,179,215	$10,544,135	36.13

This was the progress of business through the first three quarters of 1843, up to 30th June, at which time the fiscal year is now to close according to the law of the last session of Congress. With the close of the third quarter of that year, it will be remembered, an improved business sprang up, resulting from a rise in prices of western produce, and the general abundance of money here, which had reached a rate lower than had been known for many years. In our numbers for September and October, we stated the progress of that business and the causes which stimulate it. The general results of that business are seen in the imports and exports as expressed in the annual report of the secretary, as follows, compared with former years:—

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Free of duty.	Dutiable.	Total.
1843—3 quarters,.....	$35,574,584	$29,179,215	$64,753,799
1843—4 "	4,896,457	19,610,719	24,507,096
Total, 1843,.....	$40,470,961	$48,789,934	$89,260,895
" 1842,.....	30,627,486	69,534,601	100,162,085
" 1841,.....	66,019,731	61,926,466	127,946,177
" 1840,.....	57,196,204	49,945,315	107,141,519

In the year 1841, an evident improvement had taken place in business generally, consequent upon the rise in the prices of produce which had taken place in that year. In 1842, the tariff of 1841 raising most of the duties theretofore less than 20 per cent to that rate, and imposing a like duty upon goods before free, came into operation. This produced a great falling off in free goods, but the dutiable goods did not increase in the same proportion. During 1843, the present tariff was in operation, and the dutiable goods declined $21,000,000. The import of free goods also declined, because the amount of specie imported in 1843, was $23,285,552, which, deducted from the free imports, leaves $17,185,409 as the total of free goods imported, against $26,540,470 in 1842. The total of foreign goods imported in the first three quarters of 1843, amounted to not more than two-thirds of the whole import for the year; that is, the actual amount of goods imported in the fourth quarter of 1843, equalled half the whole amount of the goods imported in the first three quarters. Thus the amount of specie imported in the first three quarters was $22,077,301, which, deducted from the free goods, leaves $13,497,283 as the value of goods, making, with the dutiable goods imported, $42,676,490. The amount of specie imported in the fourth quarter was $1,208,251, which, deducted from the free goods, leaves $3,688,206. This amount, added to the dutiable goods, leaves $23,298,925 as the import of merchandise for the fourth quarter. This increased business was the result of that movement of specie which, commencing from north to south in the fall of 1842, carried near $12,000,000 to New Orleans. This sum being disseminated in the channels of business, assisted by concurring causes, stimulated and improved the demand for goods, and encouraged imports.

The exports from the United States for a corresponding period, were as follows:—

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Exports three quarters ending Jan. 30.	Value of Domestic goods.	Value of Foreign goods.	Total.	Tons.
In American vessels,.....	$60,107,819	$4,945,817	$65,053,636	1,286,083
In foreign "	17,685,964	1,606,880	19,292,844	523,949
Total, 3 quarters,....	$77,793,783	$6,552,697	$84,346,480	1,810,032
Exp'rts qr. end'g Sept. 30,	12,700,702	3,016,044	15,716,782	.....
Total, for 1843,.....	$90,494,485	$9,568,741	$100,062,266	.....
" 1842,.....	92,969,996	10,720,538	104,691,534	2,371,148
" 1841,.....	106,382,722	15,469,081	121,851,803	2,371,005
" 1840,.....	113,895,634	18,189,312	132,085,946	2,353,495

This presents a regular decline in business, which, in some degree, may be accounted for in the fall of prices. Of the domestic goods exported in the three quarters, the different heads were as follows:—

	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843. Three qrs.
Fisheries,.....	$3,198,370	$2,846,851	$2,823,010	$2,112,548
Forest,.....	5,323,085	6,264,852	5,118,262	3,351,909
Animals,.....	3,006,034	4,360,180	4,568,772	3,963,694
Vegetable food,.....	15,587,657	12,377,282	11,900,652	6,955,908
Tobacco,.....	9,883,957	12,576,703	9,540,755	4,650,979
Cotton,.....	63,870,307	54,330,341	47,593,464	49,119,806
Manufactures,.....	7,469,966	9,326,163	9,072,472	3,223,550
Other articles,.....	5,575,738	4,300,150	3,952,589	4,405,287
Total,.....	$113,895,634	$106,382,722	$92,969,996	$77,793,783

The cotton exports for the three quarters exhibit an excess over last year, as, at the close of June, the bulk of the crop had nearly all gone forward. The crop last year was very large, and a great proportion of it sold at prices exceedingly low. In Feb-

ruary and March, the rates touched their lowest points, and thereafter were gradually on the rise. In the fourth quarter, the exports reached near $13,000,000, mostly of vegetable food.

The impulse given to business, in the fourth quarter of 1843, extended into the first quarter of the current year, and imports, following the advanced price of goods, have again been large. The customs received at the port of New York, in each month of the last quarter, were, as compared with the previous year, as follows:—

Years.	January.	February.	March.	Total.
1843,.....	$548,056	$492,216	$936,590	$1,976,862
1844,.....	1,876,615	2,169,110	1,691,000	5,736,725
Increase,.....	$1,328,559	$1,676,894	$754,410	$3,759,863

It is remarkable, that the large increase of business which took place in the fourth quarter of 1843, was unaccompanied by any increased demand for money. On the other hand, as business advanced, money became more plenty; and the rate in the discount market continued to fall. During the past three months, however, prices of most commodities have advanced, an operation which of itself absorbs a larger amount of money; and during the last month it has again been rising in value on temporary loans, and the banks have notified outstanding claims that they would be charged with 6 per cent. The banks are enabled, at this late period of their financial quarter, to obtain a slightly increased price for money, after a quarter of very large imports, and an unusually early spring for trade. When, however, after many of these notes, which have been created during the past few weeks, mature, and are paid simultaneously with a realization of the large stocks of cotton and other produce now held, it is reasonable to suppose that the abundance of money will increase, and its rate again fall in the discount market. The amount of capital employed in banking here, is by far too large, now, for the character of the business done. The amount of business is large, and increasing; but the purchases are, for the most part, for cash, or city acceptances; and there is, therefore, none of that continued demand for money, at long dates, which mostly tends to increase its value, by lengthening the period at which it returns to the source of its loan.

The large imports have not had the effect of creating a demand for foreign bills sufficient to restore the rates current in the early part of the year, although the rates have continued pretty firm for the season. They have been as follows:—

RATES OF EXCHANGES IN NEW YORK.

Foreign.

	Sterling.	Francs.	Amsterdam.	Hamb'g.	Brem.
February 19,.....	9 a 9¼	5,30 a 5,28¾	39¼ a 40	35½	78½
" 25,.....	8¾ a 9¼	5,30 a 5,28¾	39¼ a 40	35½	78½
March 2,.....	8½ a 9	5,30 a 5,28¾	39½ a 40	35⅝	78½
" 14,.....	7¾ a 8	5,32 a 5,33	39½ a 39⅝	35	77½
" 21,.....	7¾ a 8	5,32 a 5,33	39½ a 39⅝	35	77½
" 27,.....	8 a 8¼	5,30 a	39⅝ a 39¾	35¼	78⅛
" 30,.....	8¼ a 8½	.... a 5,28¾	39¼ a ...	35⅜	78
April 3,.....	8 a 8½	5,28¾ a	39¼ a ...	35⅜	78⅛
" 6,.....	8¼ a 8½	5,28½ a	39¼ a ...	35½	78½
" 14,.....	8½ a 8¾	5,27½ a 5,28¼	40 a ...	35½	...

The rates have been low if we take into consideration the large amount of cotton, equal to 250,000 bales, worth $10,000,000, in excess of the stock of last year, now held on this side of the Atlantic.

The speculation in cotton, to which we have alluded in our former numbers, has considerably subsided. The prospect now is, that the crop will turn out much larger than was expected, and will reach near 2,000,000 bales. The receipts are now as follows:—

RECEIPTS OF COTTON FROM SEPTEMBER 1, TO APRIL 1.

	1844.	1843.	1842.	1841.	1840.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
April,.....	1,606,607	1,959,255	1,367,456	1,282,172	1,546,409
Subsequently,..	.....	420,205	316,755	352,773	631,426
Crop,.....	.....	2,379,460	1,684,211	1,634,945	2,177,835

The average receipts for the four years subsequent to the beginning of April, were over 400,000 bales; which, added to the actual receipts, will make a crop of over 2,000,000 bales. The conviction of this has considerably checked the spirit of specula-

tion; and, under the combination of the spinners in Manchester to check the speculative rise in cotton, the price has fallen back heavily at all points. This is the natural reaction from a season of speculation. It is highly probable, however, if we take into consideration the state of affairs in Europe, the abundance of money, and the rapid extension of articles of consumption, that prices of produce and raw material will again rise towards the close of the season.

During the month, stocks have greatly fluctuated in value; not so much the dividend-paying state stocks, as what are called the "fancy stocks." Speculation has run into railroad shares to a great extent, and prices have advanced enormously. There is an impression in some quarters that these stocks will, in the growth of the country and the natural increase of travel, prove ultimately the most profitable and stable investments.

The finances of the federal government are gradually improving in point of receipts, but the expenditures seem to swell in proportion.

The receipts and expenditures of the United States, for the eight months elapsed of the new fiscal year, ending January 30, 1844, have been, according to the reports of the secretary, as follows:—

UNITED STATES RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES.

	Quarter ending Sept. 30, 1843.	5 months ending March 1.	Total, 8 m'ths.
Receipts.			
Customs,	$6,132,272	$8,970,416	$15,102,688
Lands,	388,870	948,182	1,337,052
Miscellaneous,	26,871	57,337	84,208
Loan of 1843,	66,000	4,231	70,231
Treasury notes,	.....	1,919,800	1,919,800
Total,	$6,616,013	$11,899,966	$18,513,981
Expenditures.			
Civil, miscellaneous, and for'gn,	$1,016,257	$2,513,808	$3,530,065
Military,	2,156,557	2,017,928	6,174,485
Naval,	2,049,387	2,354,569	4,703,956
Interest of debt,	95,555	531,879	647,434
Treasury notes and interest,	6,902,031	3,403,963	10,305,998
Total,	$13,219,389	$11,842,147	$25,361,938

The amount on hand July 1st, 1844, was very large; consisting mostly of the proceeds of the 5 per cent $7,000,000 loan, authorized for the redemption of the treasury notes, which had been paid in, while the redemption of the notes did not appear upon the books until afterwards. The actual balance, exclusive of loans and notes, was $3,700,000. The apparent balance was $10,434,507. Hence, the means stand as follows:—

Balance on hand, July 1st, 1843,	$10,434,507
Receipts, 8 months, to March 1st,	18,513,981
Total means,	$28,948,488
" expenditures,	25,361,938
Excess of means,	$3,586,550

The estimates for the four months, added to the actual results, as here reported, make the receipts and expenditures, as compared with the estimates contained in the annual statement, made December 6, 1843, as follows:—

	Receipts.	Expenditures.
December, 1843, statement,	$19,521,013	$32,482,784
March, 1844, "	24,713,981	36,100,265
Increase,	$5,192,968	$3,617,481

This gives a large increase in the receipts derivable from the customs, consequent upon the large imports, as above stated. The increase which has taken place in the expenditures is not so easy of explanation. The expenditures, according to the present statement, deducting payments on account of treasury notes, will be $26,341,554—a sum equal to that of the year 1841, and much in excess of that of 1842.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

IN BANKRUPTCY—STATUTE OF LIMITATIONS.

In the United States District Court, Boston. In Bankruptcy. January, 1844. In the matter of Francis Alden. This was a motion filed to expunge the proof of Leonard Alden, on the ground that it was barred by the statute of limitations. A preliminary objection was taken to the filing of the motion, upon the ground that the application was too late. It appeared, by the affidavits in the cause, that Francis Alden filed his petition to be declared a bankrupt December 30, 1842, and was decreed bankrupt February 21, 1843. The proof of Leonard Alden was filed August 1, 1843. A dividend was ordered upon his estate September 26, of which due notice was given; and the motion to expunge the proof was made January 30, 1844, a dividend having been allowed and paid on the respondent's claim.

It further appeared, that before filing the motion to expunge, the counsel for the creditors, objecting to Francis Alden's discharge, at whose request the present motion was made by the assignee, examined the records to ascertain whether a majority in numbers and value of the creditors, who had proved their claims, joined in the objections; and on that examination it appeared that the amount of Leonard Alden's claim was incorrectly entered on the book, though the proof itself and the dividend sheet correctly stated it. The bankrupt, in his original schedule, had stated Leonard Alden's claim to be upon notes, but the claim moved to be expunged was on account. It was not denied that the debt was originally a just and valid claim, but it was contended that it was barred by the statute of limitations, and that, under the circumstances, the motion was not too late.

On the other hand, it was contended, on behalf of Mr. Alden, that the statute of limitations was a technical defence, and that a party who seeks to set it up should be held to comply strictly with the principles under which it was admissible as a bar; that a decree had been rendered allowing this claim, upon due notice, to all parties, which ought not to be reopened, even if the Court could, consistently with established principles, reverse the decree; and that it was never known that a judgment was reversed in order to give a party an opportunity to set up the statute of limitations.

Judge Sprague held that, under the ninth rule in bankruptcy, the Court might reverse such a decree upon good cause shown, which must be by an application in writing, supported by affidavits setting forth the grounds upon which a revision was sought; that it was a question to the discretion of the Court to be governed by the analogies in cases of Bills of Review in Equity, which might be allowed in cases of newly discovered evidence or error on the face of the record; that it did not appear that the assignee had ever examined this claim, or deemed that it was his duty to examine the claims; that no creditor had ever used any diligence before the dividend was ordered; that the inaccuracy upon the record was not the ground of any omission to move to expunge the claim before the dividend was ordered; that the statute of limitations might be a conscientious defence under some circumstances, as where a party knew that the debt was paid, but had lost the evidence of payment, it was perfectly conscientious to set up the statute. But in this case, it was not contended that the debt had ever been paid. The creditor had sworn to its validity, the debtor might be examined by the assignee under oath; and in a matter to be adjudged according to the discretion of the Court, his Honor would not allow the motion to be received, and sustained the objection taken by Leonard Alden, and dismissed the motion with costs.

INFRINGEMENT OF PATENT.

In the United States Circuit Court, held at Boston, Massachusetts, December, 1843, an action was brought by Eleazer Carver *vs.* the Braintree Manufacturing Company, to recover damages for an infringement of the plaintiff's patent for an improvement in the ribs of saw gins for ginning cotton. It was objected for the defendants—

1. That the plaintiff had not described his patent so precisely as to enable a mechanic, skilful in such a line of business, to make the machine from the description. This the Court held to be a question of fact for the jury, and there was evidence tending to show that mechanics had constructed the machine from the description.

2. That the plaintiff had, in his specification for his renewed patent, (for the infringement of which this action was brought,) omitted certain things which he had claimed, as of his invention, in his first patent. This the Court held was not sufficient to vitiate his patent. Indeed, the Court was inclined to the opinion that it was competent for an inventor, at any time, to omit a part of his original invention, from considerations of expediency.

3. That the plaintiff had not stated all the ways in which his improvement might be enjoyed; but the Court deemed it sufficient that he had pointed out his improvement as an improvement to the space between the ribs, and had suggested what, to him, appeared the most eligible mode of effecting this object. He was not bound to claim or specify all the various modes of producing the desired effect.

A verdict had been taken by consent of the plaintiff at the trial for $960, subject to the opinion of the Court; and this being for the plaintiff, a new trial was moved for on the ground (among others) of the exclusion of a witness for the defence, who had been a member of the corporation at the time of the infringement of the patent, but had subsequently sold out his interest.

The Court held, that as the corporators were made liable, by their charter, for all debts contracted during the time of their membership, this witness had a direct interest in the event of the suit, for the term "debts" applied not only to obligations arising out of contracts, but to claims for damages for infringement of patents, failure to perform agreements, and the like. The motion for a new trial was refused.

COLLECTOR'S CLAIM OF PER CENTAGE ON CUSTOM BONDS.

In the U. S. Circuit Court, New York, December, 1843. Jesse Hoyt *vs.* Edward Curtis.

The plaintiff was formerly collector of the port, and claims $1,799, with interest, from defendant, who is the present collector. The claim is grounded on an asserted right of one-half per cent, commission on bonds which were in the custom-house at the time of plaintiff's leaving, and which were collected, at maturity, by defendant. Mr. Hoffman, district attorney, disputed plaintiff's right to such commissions. Mr. Selden, counsel for Mr. Hoyt, contended that his client was entitled to the amount, but refused to take any more interest than would be sufficient to keep the verdict below $2,000, as he did not wish the government to have an opportunity of carrying the case to the Supreme Court of the United States. The Court charged that the salary of the collector is now defined by law, that he is entitled to $4,000 a year, and the plaintiff cannot sustain the presentation, as he has not received this amount. Verdict for defendant.

ACTION OF TRESPASS.

In the Supreme Court, (New York city,) Judge Oakley presiding. Andrew Lester *vs.* Samuel F. Parker and others.

This was an action of trespass. It appeared that the defendant obtained judgment on a note passed him by an auctioneer named Browning, and not being able to recover on the judgment, he filed a creditor's bill in the Court of Chancery, and obtained an order for a receiver to take possession of Browning's property, or at least so much of it as should pay his debt. The receiver accordingly, at the defendant's instance, took posses-

sion of the entire stock of goods in Browning's auction store, amounting to nearly $20,000, and kept possession of it for three days, although the debt of Browning to Lester did not amount to more than $600 or $700. Immediately on the seizure being made, proceedings were instituted in chancery to test its validity, and the vice chancellor ordered the plaintiff to pay $1,000 into court to abide the issue of a suit at law, which was done, and the seizure of the goods was then withdrawn. The plaintiff brings the present action on the ground that the goods seized belonged to him and not to Browning, who held them only as an auctioneer, to sell for his account. On the part of the defendants, it was contended that the goods either belonged to Browning, or that, if they belonged to plaintiff, he had permitted Browning to assume ownership of them, and, by so doing, justified the seizure of them by Browning's creditor. On this part of the case the evidence was conflictory. The Court charged the jury, that the whole question was narrowed down as to who was the owner of the goods which were seized by the receiver. If the goods which were seized belonged to the plaintiff, or if any part of them belonged to him, he was entitled to a verdict. Verdict for plaintiff—$1,311.

ACTION OF ASSUMPSIT, ON A GUARANTEE.

In the Superior Court, (New York city,) Judge Jones presiding. William Whitlock *vs.* Peter Morton.

This was an action of assumpsit, on a guarantee given by the defendant. It appeared that, in the winter of 1842, a young man named Edward Shepard, whose father is a respectable merchant in another city, arrived here from Havre in the plaintiff's ship, and Shepard's baggage was detained by him, for the passage money of himself and others, for which he had rendered himself liable. In this dilemma young Shepard informed the defendant, who was his father's correspondent, that his baggage was detained for his passage money and *et ceteras*, and requested the defendant to guarantee the amount claimed, in order that he might get possession of his baggage. The defendant accordingly gave the plaintiff a guarantee for his lien on Shepard's baggage, and Shepard also gave the plaintiff a draft on his father for it, and the plaintiff gave him up his property. The plaintiff shortly after demanded from defendant between three or four hundred dollars as the amount of his guarantee, and the defendant, not a little astonished that Shepard's passage money could amount to so large a sum, inquired in relation to it, and learned that, besides Shepard's own passage money, he had also rendered himself liable for certain other *et ceteras*, in the shapes of a lady and two children, who accompanied him on the voyage. As it appeared that the lady or her children had no legal claim on Mr. Shepard's protection, the defendant refused to pay for her passage, and Shepard's father refused also to pay for the same reason, and the present action was instituted. For the defence, it was contended, first, that the guarantee was not an absolute one; and secondly, that the plaintiff's taking Shepard's draft on his father exonerated the defendant from his guarantee. Verdict for plaintiff—$359.

PROMISSORY NOTE.

In the St. Louis Court of Common Pleas, before the Hon. P. H. Engle. St. Louis Gas Light Company *vs.* James B. Hill.

This was an action by the Gas Light Company, to recover of the defendant the amount of a negotiable promissory note for $650, made by M'Gunnegle & Way, in favor of, and endorsed by the defendant to the plaintiff. The plaintiff proved the presentment and protest of the note, and notice of non-payment to defendant, and offered the note in evidence.

Defendant's counsel then moved the Court to instruct the jury as follows:—"That there being no evidence to the jury in relation to the erasure on the face of the note given in evidence, the jury are to presume that the alteration was made after the note was executed; and that, therefore, it is void, as the assent of the defendant to such alteration is not shown." This instruction was, after argument, given by the Court, and the plaintiff thereupon suffered a nonsuit.

BANK STATISTICS.

STATISTICS OF THE SAVINGS BANK IN NEW YORK.

We have received an official copy of the Twenty-Fifth Annual Report of the Trustees of the Bank of Savings, in the city of New York, for 1843, laid before the Legislature March 8th, 1844. By this report, it appears that the trustees have received, from 18,479 depositors, from 1st of January to 31st of December, 1843, the sum of $1,157,682 50.

The following table exhibits the number of persons from whom deposits were received, and the amount deposited; the number of drafts drawn at the institution, and the amount paid out, in each month of the year, commencing in January, and ending in December, 1843:—

In the month of	No. depositors.	Am't deposited.	No. drafts paid.	Am't paid out.
January,	1,271	$70,689 36	1,622	$101,843 62
February,	918	48,728 91	1,476	94,646 60
March,	1,162	64,871 35	1,383	89,856 50
April,	1,042	68,083 65	1,474	102,469 75
May,	1,375	90,496 55	1,315	90,442 03
June,	2,142	150,487 00	804	42,628 58
July,	1,809	110,823 21	1,471	103,079 87
August,	1,473	89,070 24	1,210	78,120 52
September,	1,783	120,074 73	1,114	75,513 78
October,	1,472	90,600 12	1,110	77,026 24
November,	1,403	87,591 99	1,053	59,715 09
December,	2,629	166,165 39	782	34,944 26
Total,	18,479	$1,157,682 50	14,814	$950,286 84

The following table presents a general view of the institution, from the commencement of its charter, in July, 1819, to January, 1844:—

				Receipts.			
July, 1819, to July,	1824,	5	years, from	29,437	depositors,		$1,880,556 45
" 1824, to Jan.,	1830,	5½	"	60,820	"		3,451,915 52
Jan., 1830, "	1835,	5	"	82,535	"		4,644,604 70
" 1835, "	1840,	5	"	92,382	"		5,951,545 80
		20½	"	265,174	"		$15,928,622 47
" 1840, "	1841,	1	"	16,469	"		1,095,388 27
" 1841, "	1842,	1	"	18,928	"		1,222,919 80
" 1842, "	1843,	1	"	15,352	"		978,923 15
" 1843, "	1844,	1	"	18,479	"		1,157,682 50
		24½	"	334,402	"		$20,382,836 19
Deduct amount paid to 246,910 drafts,							18,786,487 87
							$1,596,348 32
Add interest, up to and including January dividend, 1844,							2,264,566 53
Total due to depositors January 1st, 1844,							$3,860,914 85

The 4,727 depositors of 1843, are classified in the report as follows:—Artists, 4; attorneys, 18; bakers, 87; barbers, 28; blacksmiths, 78; boarding-house keepers, 40; bookbinders, 11; cartmen, 70; carpenters, 198; chandlers, 8; clerks, 223; coachmakers, 1; coachmen, 13; cutlers, 5; distillers, 1; domestics, 1,287; druggists, 9; engineers, 27; farmers, 92; founders, 11; furriers, 5; gardeners, 32; grocers, 109; hatters, 17; hucksters, 11; jewellers, 34; laborers, 517; machinists, 9; masons, 62;

merchants, 91; milkmen, 15; musicians, 21; musical instrument makers, 5; painters, 37; pedlars, 50; physicians, 17; porters, 83; preachers, 9; printers, 47; riggers, 16; saddlers, 13; seamen, 58; sempstresses, 226; shoemakers, 157; shopkeepers, 172; soldiers, 4; tailors, 218; tanners, 32; tavern-keepers, 26; teachers, 36; tinmen, 11; tobacconists, 17; upholsterers, 9; washers, 77; weavers, 12; white-washer, 1; not described, being minors, &c., 260.

The institution appears to be conducted with economy; and, from the excellence of the investments, and the respectable character of the gentlemen composing the board of trustees, at the head of which, as president, is Philip Hone, Esq., we should consider it one of the safest depositories for the surplus earnings of merchants' clerks, and persons whose income is small, or derived from salaries, in the city of New York.

BOSTON BANK DIVIDENDS.

The following table exhibits the capital, per centage, and the total amount of dividends to be paid on and after the 1st of April, 1844. Also, the whole number of shares of each bank in Boston, and the par value of the same:—

Names.	Capital.	Dividend. Per cent.	Am't div. paid.	No. shares.	Par val.
Atlas,	$500,000	...	.....	5,000	$100
Atlantic,	500,000	2½	$12,500	5,000	100
Boston,	600,000	3½	21,000	12,000	50
City,	1,000,000	2½	25,000	10,000	100
Columbian,	500,000	2	10,000	5,000	100
Eagle,	500,000	2½	12,500	5,000	100
Freemans,	150,000	3½	5,250	1,500	100
Globe,	1,000,000	3	30,000	10,000	100
Granite,	500,000	2	10,000	5,000	100
Hamilton,	500,000	2	10,000	5,000	100
Massachusetts,	800,000	2	16,000	3,200	250
Market,	560,000	3	16,800	8,000	70
Mechanics,	150,000	3	4,500	1,500	100
Merchants,	2,000,000	3	60,000	20,000	100
New England,	1,000,000	2½	25,000	10,000	100
North,	750,000	2	15,000	7,500	100
Shoe and Leather,	500,000	3	15,000	5,000	100
Shawmut,	500,000	2½	12,500	5,000	100
State,	1,800,000	2	36,000	30,000	60
Suffolk,	1,000,000	4	40,000	10,000	100
South,	500,000	*	.....	5,000	100
Tremont,	500,000	2½	12,500	5,000	100
Traders,	400,000	2	8,000	5,000	100
Union,	800,000	2½	20,000	8,000	100
Washington,	500,000	1¾	8,750	5,000	100
		...		.....	....
Total,	$17,010,000	...	426,300	.....	....
Dividends paid October, 1843,			417,000	.....	....
Excess for past six months,			$9,300		

This averages about 2½ per cent, for the first six months, on the total bank capital of Boston; making, at the same rate, 5 per cent per annum. The Atlas bank makes no dividend. The lowest dividend declared is by the Washington, being 1¾ per cent, and the highest by the Suffolk, being 4 per cent.

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* South—no return made.

RAILROAD STATISTICS.

WESTERN RAILROAD.*

The eighth annual report of the directors of the Western railroad corporation, made to the legislature of Massachusetts, January, 1844, occupies thirty-four pages, and gives a minute account of the proceedings of the corporation, and the results of the operations of the road, from January, 1843, to December, inclusive. The capital and loans of the company amount to $8,319,520. The receipts during the year 1843 were—for transportation of passengers, $275,139 64; merchandise, $275,696 19; mails, expresses, &c., $23,046 68; total, $573,882 51. The expenditures during the year, embracing repairs of road, engines, cars, buildings, fuel, oil, salaries, wages, miscellaneous expenses, including certain expenditures belonging to former years; amount paid sinking fund of the Albany and Western road; interest accruing and paid during the year, being the whole amount of interest on permanent and floating debts, make a total of $578,309 92. The amount chargeable to the business of 1843 was but $283,826 43. The number of miles run by locomotive engines, during 1843, is as follows:—Passenger trains, 216,139; merchandise, 197,603; miscellaneous, 27,865; total, 441,608. Four passenger trains have passed over the entire length of the road every day throughout the year, with the exception of Sundays, and an occasional detention in winter; affording, by means of the Boston and Worcester railroad on one hand, and the Albany and West Stockbridge on the other, an ample, speedy, and direct communication between the cities of Boston and Albany. Regular trains, for the transportation of merchandise, have also travelled in both directions daily; supplying abundant facilities for the cheap interchange of commodities between the east and the west. The total receipts of the year, as compared with the previous year, were, from all sources—

In 1842,.....	$512,688 28
1843,.....	573,882 51
Showing an increase, in 1843, of.....	$61,192 23

The aggregate increase, from passengers and merchandise, in the last eight months of 1843, over the corresponding period of 1842, was $59,797 86; although the rates charged, both for passengers and freight, were, in April, 1843, considerably reduced from that charged in 1842;—affording pretty conclusive evidence in favor of the doctrine of low fares. The Western company voted, in 1843, to reduce the rate for first class through-passengers to two cents per mile, and for way-passengers two and a half cents per mile, and to make a proportionate reduction in the second class passengers, provided the Boston and Worcester company should concur in the reduction; but the latter company refused their assent, and the vote was defeated.

In January, 1842, the rates for first class through-passengers, from Boston to Albany, was $5 50; in April, 1842, it was reduced to $5 00; in December, 1842, it was advanced to $6 00; in April, 1843, it was reduced to $4 00; in December, 1843, it was advanced to $5 00. The rates for first class way-passengers, during the past two years, have not materially varied from three cents per mile; and the rate for second class passengers has been two-thirds the rates for the first class.

The number of way-passengers was—

	1st Class.	2d Class.	Total.
In 1842,.....	148,500	23,366	171,866
1843,.....	140,425	33,945½	174,370½
Difference,....	8,085	Diminution, 10,579½	Increase, 2,504½

* The Western railroad completes the chain from Boston to Buffalo.

	1st Class.	2d Class.	Total.
For the last eight months of 1842,.....	102,193½	17,840	120,033½
" " " 1843,.....	103,527	28,115½	131,642½
Difference, (increase,).....	1,333½	10,275½	11,609

The whole number of tons carried one mile by the merchandise trains, during the year, was, nett, in 1843, 9,414,621; in 1842, 6,211,971;—increase in 1843, 3,202,650.

The whole tonnage is equal to 60,350 tons, carried over the whole length of the road, or 156 miles.

The number of miles run by locomotives with merchandise trains, in 1843, being 197,603, we find it equal to 1,267 trips through, averaging 47⅝ tons each train, nett.

The through-freight from Boston to Albany was, in 1842, 2,472 tons; and in 1843, 5,268 tons; showing an increase in the amount of through-freight, going west, of 2,896 tons.

The Norwich and Worcester, the Housatonic, the Hartford and Springfield, which is now in progress, and will probably be completed in October next, are all-important to the Western road, particularly in winter. The Hudson and Berkshire railroad has also many important relations with the Western. The connection with the Boston and Worcester railroad, however, is so essential, and the interests of the Western road so much involved in the terms upon which that connection is maintained, that it has attracted a great deal of the attention of the board of directors. The opinion has been prevalent that the existing terms of the Worcester and Boston road are onerous to the Western corporation, and measures have been taken to bring the whole matter under revision. It is to be hoped that the result may be such as, while it shall advance the interests of the Western road, shall, at the same time, be perfectly fair and equitable. Could the business of the two corporations be kept as distinct as that of others similarly situated, the interests of this corporation would be greatly promoted. As an index to the amount of income accruing to the Boston and Worcester railroad corporation from the joint business of the two roads, it is proper to state that the amount derived from it by that corporation, during the year 1843, is about $153,000.

The report furnishes a table showing the entire cost of the Western road to December 31, 1843, from which it appears that the amount paid to December 31, 1842, was $5,565,552 46; the amount paid in 1843, $179,309 25. The total amount paid to December, 1843, was $5,744,861 71. The entire cost of the Albany and West Stockbridge road, up to December 31, 1843, was $1,756,342 78.

The receipts from passengers, freights, and other sources, as mails, expresses, &c., in each month of 1843, was as follows:—

1843.	Passengers.	Freight.	Other sources, mails, expresses, &c.	Total.
January,.....	$14,412 73	$13,524 32	$1,915 09	$29,852 14
February,.....	11,612 46	10,490 62	1,751 92	23,854 50
March,.....	13,345 11	15,476 47	1,929 90	30,751 48
April,.....	17,922 88	17,005 56	1,770 89	36,699 33
May,.....	24,075 88	27,511 14	1,828 57	53,415 59
June,.....	31,014 73	21,108 84	1,771 09	53,894 66
July,.....	29,438 55	23,399 00	1,771 81	54,609 36
August,.....	38,346 73	24,325 76	1,768 21	64,440 70
September,.....	34,435 20	26,197 17	1,769 55	62,401 92
October,.....	26,307 80	33,950 22	2,355 89	62,613 91
November,.....	19,189 58	38,136 34	2,066 42	59,392 34
December,.....	15,037 99	24,571 25	2,347 34	41,956 58
Total,.....	$275,139 64	$275,696 19	$23,046 68	$573,882 51

The following statement shows the number of passengers, through and way, in each class, over the Western railroad, for the year ending December 31st, 1843:—

1843.	Through. 1st Class.	Through. 2d Class.	Way. 1st Class.	Way. 2d Class.	Total. 1st Class.	Total. 2d Class.
January,.....	448½	88	9,576½	1,066	10,025	1,154
February,.....	362½	51½	7,280	873½	7,642½	925
March,.....	438½	98	8,761	1,215	9,199½	1,313
April,.....	864	384	11,280½	2,675½	12,144½	3,059½
May,.....	1,802	857½	11,679	3,084½	13,481	3,942
June,.....	2,844½	1,017	12,738	3,540½	15,582½	4,557½
July,.....	2,727	669½	14,084	2,948	16,811	3,617½
August,.....	3,881	707½	16,820½	3,086	20,701½	3,793½
September,...	2,884½	966	15,819½	4,207½	18,704	5,173½
October,.....	1,905½	972	13,196½	4,581	15,102	5,553
November,...	1,182	564	10,066½	3,988½	11,248½	4,552½
December,....	647	233	9,123	2,679½	9,770	2,912½
Total,....	19,987	6,608	140,425	33,945½	160,412	40,553½

The amount of freight received at and sent from Boston, in connection with the Western road, was, in 1842, 41,028 tons; 1843, 56,368;—increase, 15,340 tons.

Flour received at Boston from Albany—

In 1842,.....	85,986 bbls.	In 1843,.....	123,366 bbls.
Wool in 1842,.....	6,713 bales.	Wool in 1843,.....	11,996 bales.

The connection of the Western railroad with other railroads, which enter it at various points, is also a subject of great importance.

RAILROADS OF NEW YORK.

We have received the report of the secretary of state, pursuant to the resolution of the assembly of New York, of February 2, 1843, relative to the railroad statistics of the state. This report contains much valuable information, though it is not as full and explicit as could be desired. To be of the most practical value, it should extend over the whole number of years during which the several railroads have been in operation, and should embody the results of each year, from their commencement to the present time. Of the seventeen railroad corporations of the state, eleven of them have complied with the requirements of February 2, 1843, leaving the following companies in default, viz: New York and Erie, Buffalo and Black Rock, Hudson and Berkshire, Lewiston, Long Island, and New York and Harlem.

An intelligent correspondent of the Albany Argus has arranged, from the returns reported by the secretary of the state, the following tables, to which we have made some additions from the report; and which, together with his remarks, embraces all that is of interest in the returns:—

Name of Road.	Length. Miles. Chains.	Cost of construction up to 1844.	No. of through passengers.	No. of way pass.
1. Attica and Buffalo,.....	31.36	$268,000	60,752	6,144
2. Tonawanda,.....	43.00	600,000	50,709	16,895
3. Auburn and Rochester,.....	78.00	1,727,000	48,997	56,191
4. Auburn and Syracuse,.....	26.00	761,000	75,518	7,798
5. Syracuse and Utica,.....	53.00	1,080,000	78,780	36,063
6. Utica and Schenectady,.....	78.00	2,047,000	95,184	52,684
7. Mohawk and Hudson,.....	16.68	*1,054,000	115,290	None.
8. Schenectady and Troy,.....	20.40	634,000	66,421	4,623
9. Rensselaer and Saratoga,.....	25.00	476,000	16,215	14,947
10. Saratoga and Schenectady,.....	22.00	313,000	.....	.....
11. Albany and West Stockbridge,	38.20	1,753,000	43,179	20,442
Totals,.....	431.64	$10,713,000	.....	.....

* Includes cost of new line at Schenectady.

Average cost per mile of 432 miles of railroad, $24,800.

The roads marked 1 to 7, inclusive, form the continuous chain from Lake Erie to the Hudson—distance, 326¼ miles, or 36¾ miles less than the Erie canal.

The "cost of construction" includes the first cost of road and superstructure, land damages, &c.; the necessary fixtures, depots, and carriage-houses; together with locomotives, freight and passenger trains, and all expenses attending the construction and operation of the several roads, except "expenses for repairing and running road."

RECEIPTS AND EXPENSES FOR THE YEAR 1843.

Name of Road.	Receipts. For passengers and freight.	Expenses. Repairs and running road.	Excess. Receipts over expenses.	Receipts from through-passengers.	Receipts from way-passengers.
Attica and Buffalo,	$45,900	$19,150	$26,750	$40,467 72	$2,369 16
Tonawanda,	76,200	43,610	32,590	42,267 34	17,395 68
Auburn and Rochester,	189,700	100,200	89,500	112,236 05	58,176 88
Auburn and Syracuse,	86,300	38,530	47,770	.....	.....
Syracuse and Utica,	163,700	66,800	96,900	118,170 00	29,183 00
Utica and Schenectady,	*304,000	128,850	175,150	227,844 88	49,318 93
Mohawk and Hudson,	69,900	58,780	11,120	49,782 77	.....
Schenectady and Troy,	28,000	30,410	*a*	26,159 44	1,044 62
Rensselaer and Saratoga,	44,300	22,360	21,940	15,972 62	5,490 92
Saratoga and Schenectady,	32,200	25,810	6,390	16,963 05	8,875 81
Albany & W. Stockbridge,	no income.	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total,	$1,040,200	$534,500	$508,110	.....	.....
Expenses,	534,500	*a* 2,410	deficit.	.....	.....
Excess receipts,	$505,700 over expenses.				

Recurring again to the total "cost of construction," $10,713,000, and deducting the cost of the Albany and West Stockbridge Railroad, (from which "no income is derived,") $1,753,000, we have $8,960,000, the cost of construction, or total outlay for the remaining ten roads, from which are derived the aggregate income of $505,700. From this statement results $8,960,000—$505,700—1; ,56, or 5 6-10 per cent income on the capital invested.

This ranges a little higher than the railroads of Massachusetts, and is about the same as the per centage on some 2,000 miles of railroads in the United States, as ascertained by the Chevalier De Gerstner, in 1839, after a personal inspection of all the principal roads in this country.

The Utica and Schenectady railroad being prohibited from carrying freight, and the receipts being confined to passengers alone, (with the exception of the U. S. mail, and miscellaneous receipts,) the statistics are consequently more simplified, and susceptible of direct application, than upon roads which derive an income promiscuously from passengers, freight, and other articles charged by number, bulk, weight, &c. We have therefore selected the data furnished by this road, for the purpose of getting at a few items of information more definitely than they are set forth, or could be easily obtained from the returns in reference to any of the other roads:—

The receipts from through-passengers on this road, during the year 1843, (omitting receipts from U. S. mail, and miscellaneous,) were	$227,900
From way-passengers,	49,300
Total,	$277,200
Expenses of running road, and repairs,	128,850
Excess of receipts over expenses,	$148,350
Miles run by passenger trains,	130,200

* The Utica and Schenectady railroad is prohibited by its charter from carrying freight. This amount is made up as follows:—

Income from passengers,	$277,160
" U. S. mail,	11,700
Miscellaneous receipts,	15,140
Total,	$304,000

Number of through-passengers,	95,200
" way-passengers,	52,700
Total,	147,900

From this data we have obtained the following results, which we give without the detail of figures and calculation. They may be verified by a simple arithmetical process. They are not strictly correct, but approximate very closely to accuracy.

It is necessary to observe that they apply to the operations of one year only, (1843,) and are far from the average result, which would be shown by taking into account the statistics for a series of years:—

The expense for running road, and repairs, is $1 for every mile run, within a fraction.

The account for running road is not returned separate from that of repairs.

52,700 way-passengers, equivalent to 20,600 through-passengers, assuming that they pay in the same proportion.

Through-passengers, 95,200; way-passengers, equivalent to 20,600. Total passengers, (assumed,) 115,800.

Expense per through-passenger, $1 11.

Expense per passenger per mile, 1 cent and 4 mills.

Amount received per through-passenger, $2 39.

Amount received per passenger per mile, 3 cents and 1 mill.

The charge per mile, at $2 50 for 78 miles, (the rate established during the last season, the previous rate having been $3,) is 3 cents and 2 mills.

As a considerable portion of the receipts are derived from passengers in the second class of cars, at a reduced rate, it would be supposed that the amount received per mile, from the whole number of passengers, would fall below the maximum rate, showing a greater difference between the average amount received per passenger, (3c. 1m.,) and the highest rate charged; (3c. 2m.;) but this may be explained by stating that way-passengers contribute more to the high than the low fares, and that the receipts for 1843 accrued, to some extent, before the reduction of fare from $3 to $2 50 took place. The period at which this occurred, we have not ascertained.

The dividends declared for this road, for the last year, were—One 1st February, of 5 per cent, and one 1st August, of 4 per cent—$180,000.

There are many other interesting results which may be deduced from the data furnished in this report, in regard to the Utica and Schenectady railroad, and others, which we must necessarily omit in the present article.

CENTRAL (MICH.) RAILROAD.

The business on this road is fast increasing. The receipts for February were—

For passengers,	$2,311 88
" freight,	7,805 31
" old iron,	160 00
Total,	$10,277 19
Corresponding month in 1843,	2,778 92
Excess,	$7,588 97

Which is a larger increase than has taken place on any other railroad in this country. A bill has just passed the legislature of Michigan, extending the road to Kalamazoo, from which the business will be largely increased.

NORWICH AND WORCESTER RAILROAD.

The total receipts of this road, from passengers, freight, mail, &c., in 1843, were $162,335 93; the total amount of expenses paid in 1843, $137,464 95. The whole number of miles run during the year, by passenger trains, freight, and for road-clearing, was 146,075. No dividend was declared during the year ending 31st of December, 1843.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

RATES OF TOLL ON ALL THE CANALS OF NEW YORK.

Rates of Toll, established by the Canal Board, on Persons and Property transported on all the navigable Canals of the State, for the year 1844.

	cts.	m.	f.
Provisions, etc.			
1. On flour, salted beef and pork, butter, cheese, tallow, lard, beer, and cider, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
2. On bran and ship-stuffs in bulk, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
Iron, Minerals, Ores, etc.			
3. On salt manufactured in this state, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	2	3
4. On foreign salt, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	3	0	0
5. 1st—On gypsum, the product of this state, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	2	3
2d—On foreign gypsum, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
6. On brick, sand, lime, clay, earth, leached ashes, manure, and iron ore, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	2	3
7. On pot and pearl ashes, kelp, charcoal, broken castings, scrap iron, and pig iron, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
8. On mineral coal, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
9. On stove and all other iron castings, except machines, and the parts thereof, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
10. On copperas and manganese, going towards tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
11. On bar and pig lead, going towards tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
Furs, Peltry, Skins, etc.			
12. On furs and peltry, (except deer, buffalo, and moose skins,) per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	1	0	0
13. On deer, buffalo, and moose skins, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	5	0
14. On sheep skins, and other raw hides of domestic animals of the United States, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
15. On imported raw hides, of domestic and other animals, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	5	0
Furniture, etc.			
16. On household furniture, accompanied by and actually belonging to families emigrating, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
17. On carts, wagons, sleighs, ploughs, and mechanics' tools necessary for the owner's individual use, when accompanied by the owner, emigrating for the purpose of settlement, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
Stone, Slate, etc.			
18. On slate and tile for roofing, and stoneware, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
19. On all stone, wrought or unwrought, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	2	3
Lumber, Wood, etc.			
20. On timber, squared and round, per 100 cubic feet per mile, if carried in boats,	0	5	0
21. On the same, if carried in rafts, (except dock-sticks, as in next item,) per 100 cubic feet per mile,	1	0	0
22. On round dock-sticks, passing in cribs, separate from every other kind of timber, per 100 cubic feet per mile,	1	0	0
23. On blocks of timber, for paving streets, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	2	0
24. 1st—On boards, plank, scantling, and sawed timber, reduced to inch measure, and all siding, lath, and other sawed stuff, less than one inch thick, carried in boats, (except such as is enumerated in regulations Nos. 26 and 35,) per 1,000 feet per mile,	0	5	0
24. 2d—On the same, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 feet per mile,	2	0	0
25. On mahogany, (except veneering,) reduced to inch measure, per 1,000 feet per mile,	1	5	0

	cts.	m.	f.
26. On sawed lath, of less than ten feet in length, split lath, hoop-poles, handspikes, rowing oars, broom-handles, spokes, hubs, tree-nails, felloes, boat-knees, and plane-stocks, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	2	0
27. On staves and heading, transported in boats, per 1,000 lbs. per mile, 1st, for pipes and hogsheads,	0	1	5
2d, for barrels,	0	2	0
28. On the same, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	5	0
29. On shingles, per M. per mile, carried in boats,	0	1	0
30. On the same, if conveyed in rafts, per M. per mile,	0	4	0
31. On split posts, (not exceeding ten feet in length,) and rails for fencing, (not exceeding fourteen feet in length,) per M. per mile, carried in boats,	2	0	0
32. On the same, if conveyed in rafts, per M. per mile,	8	0	0
33. On wood for fuel, (except such as may be used in the manufacture of salt, which shall be exempt from toll,) and tan-bark, per cord per mile,	1	0	0
34. On the same, if transported in rafts, per cord per mile,	2	0	0
35. On sawed stuff for window-blinds, not exceeding one-fourth of an inch in thickness, and window-sashes, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	5	0
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS, ETC.			
36. On cotton and wool, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
37. On live cattle, sheep, hogs, horns, hoofs, and bones, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
38. On horses, (and each horse, when not weighed, to be computed at 900 lbs.,) per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	5	0
39. On rags, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
40. On hemp, Manilla, and unmanufactured tobacco, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
41. On pressed hay, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	2	3
42. On wheat, and all other agricultural productions of the United States, not particularly specified, and not being merchandise, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
43. On merchandise, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	9	0
ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED.			
44. On all articles not enumerated or excepted, passing from tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	9	0
45. On all articles not enumerated or excepted, passing towards tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5
BOATS AND PASSENGERS.			
46. On boats chiefly used for the transportation of persons, navigating any of the canals, per mile,	5	0	0
47. On boats used chiefly for the transportation of property, per mile,	2	0	0
48. On all persons over ten years of age, per mile,	0	0	5
49. On articles of the manufacture of the United States, going towards tide-water, although they may be enumerated in the foregoing lists, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,	0	4	5

ALTERATIONS IN THE NEW CHINESE TARIFF.

The Canton Register, of November 21st, 1843, says:—"We gather, from an official communication from his excellency, the imperial commissioner, that an alteration has been made in the new tariff on "foreign ginseng," in consequence of some representations of the American consul. The correction in the tariff will be as follows:—

		t.	m.
22 ginseng, 1st quality, per 100 catties, 38t.	X2.10ths	7	6
" 2d " or refuse, per 100 catties, 3t. 5m.	X8.10ths	2	8
New duty on 100 catties ginseng, all qualities,		10	4

Also, that on a careful examination of the English version of the tariff, promulgated on the 22d of July last, it has been discovered that the article "sea-otter skins" is inserted at one mace five candareens each, (1m. 5c.,) instead of one tael five mace each, (1t. 5m.;) which typographical error is hereby pointed out, and is to be corrected accordingly."

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF CHINA,

ON THE SUBJECT OF WAREHOUSES, OLD AND NEW MERCHANTS, ETC.

A proclamation of their Excellencies, the imperial commissioner, Keying; the governor-general of Canton, Kekung; the deputy-governor, Ching; and the collector of customs, Wan, translated from the Chinese, and officially published in the Hong-Kong Gazette, of November 9, 1843, received at the office of the Merchants' Magazine, declares as follows:—

"That the warehouses belonging to the new merchants, (outside men,) and those which appertain to the old merchants, (i. e., Hong merchants,) are now to be considered as identical, without any difference whatsoever. Its object is also to encourage and promote a wide extension of the trade, inasmuch as the merchants of all nations resort to the province of Canton for the purposes of traffic.

"The old tariff was in the hands of official merchants, who were expressly appointed to act as deputies and commissioners in this department. Hence, for a long while, difficulties arose day after day, till they affected the merchants of every nation; and every merchant that traverses the ocean became involved in a variety of ways.

"Of late, a new tariff has been settled. Merchants of every nation are allowed, and commanded to act with candor, and the mutual fidelity of merchants who feel themselves to be as strangers and guests. All are permitted to buy and sell, to traffic, and make merchandise, but are not permitted to indulge in a pertinacious adherence to their own decisions, nor to lay down rules and limitations. To the end that, in time to come, no difference should be felt between the merchants of former days and merchants who have recently opened their stores and warehouses, one thing alone is adjudged to be necessary; which is, that traders be men of honesty and truth, and faithful to their engagements with men from afar. All such men have full leave and license to participate in the trade. On the other hand, the old Hong merchants are not allowed to monopolize, and seek their own advantage, to the exclusion of all other persons, notwithstanding, in former times, all the said Hong merchants were the officers of government, who set the price at which the goods were to be sold, and levied fees, under a variety of names and denominations.

"Since that time, our great ministers, and high officers aforementioned, memorialized the emperor, begging that he would authorize them to frame measures for the furtherance of justice and the common good, and to draw up regulations, entirely new from the commencement to the close; and whatever they found incompatible with the general good, to abolish and repeal it altogether. But, with respect to the warehouses of the old and the new merchants, it was not their intention to meddle in any conceivable way; as all the aforesaid merchants' warehouses are things which workmen have need of, and as to the packhouses, and such like places, they cannot but be indispensable. Old experienced merchants, who have travelled much, and understand clearly the nature of the principle, have already plainly expressed it in words, and have said that it alike respects the interests of both parties, the buyer and the seller; so that it is no longer necessary to ask the magistrate any questions about it. And the principle is this, namely; that the warehouses of every nation ought to be really profitable things, and should not involve the owner in trouble; but, in the conduct of business, are destined to have a great many advantages.

"We, the high commissioner, &c., made many inquiries concerning the old, as well as the new merchants' warehouses; but there is no occasion for looking backwards or forwards, as we are viewing each other with a hope that the merchants' ships of every nation will soon open their holds, and land their cargoes. More than this is neither necessary nor convenient. It has appeared that the wish of the Hong merchants is to thrust aside, and to mislead; and that the question of letting the new warehouses is encumbered with many doubts and anxieties. Hence we halt and stumble, and make no advances. To accelerate the progress of trade, this proclamation is issued; and it is published with a special reference to the old and the new warehouses, that all men may know and understand *that, ever after this, there shall be no difference between the old and the new warehouses;* and that, agreeably to the tenor and spirit of the tariff, merchants of *every nation* shall trade on the same footing, always saving and excepting those who are leagued together with the object of defrauding the revenue, and persons who deal in opium, or get gain by swindling and knavish practices; all of which offences are severally deserving of punishment, since those who thus, or in any other way, defy the laws, are not to be endured.

"Among other duties which you are bound to perform, listen! you who trade justly, to what each experienced merchant has to say; and, once for all, cease to trouble the magistrate with your inquiries. Ever since the new regulations began to be in force, ships have clustered together in number like the clouds of Heaven. Take heed, therefore, and do not, as formerly, thrust aside and mislead; being assured that if business is done negligently, it will have some evil consequence. The high commissioner and his colleagues again and again enjoin you and exhort you to mark the intent and meaning of this proclamation. Do not refuse to do this. A special edict."

REGULATIONS AT THE PORTS OF MARIEL AND CARDENAS.

The following official information, translated from the Spanish, and communicated to the department of state at Washington by the charge d'affaires, *ad interim*, of Spain, near this government, is published in the Merchants' Magazine for the benefit of those whom it may concern:—

Concessions made in favor of the ports of Mariel and Cardenas, as provisional measures, subject to such alterations as experience may show to be necessary:—

1. Spanish vessels, registered in national ports, may enter the said ports, and discharge and load, under the existing regulations.

2. Vessels of any other nation, coming in ballast, to take in the productions of the country, may also be admitted.

3. National and foreign vessels, bringing from abroad the following articles, may also be admitted, viz: Beams, boards, and planks; staves, wooden boxes, hogsheads and barrels, mounted or unmounted; tiles; boards for sugar boxes; iron moulds; sheet brass or zinc, for sugar-making; hemp or linen bags and ropes; salt beef or pork; dried cod, or other fish; salt from the island; iron nails; steam-engines, for sugar-making; machines and sieves for sugar factories; separate parts of machines for sugar-making; other articles for the same purpose; bricks.

4. The said vessels bringing other articles than those abovementioned, cannot enter the said ports without having first discharged in the established ports of the island the articles, the direct importation of which is prohibited in the ports here named.

Concessions in favor of Sagua.

Fruits alone may be exported from Sagua under any flag, and from any place; and, in consequence, vessels may enter in ballast, in order to carry away fruits.

ENTREPOT AT CAMPEACHY.

The Siglio XIX., a newspaper printed at Merida, publishes a decree of the governor of Yucatan, establishing an entrepot for imported goods at Campeachy. The following are the provisions of the decree:—

Art. 1. A mercantile depot is to be established in the port of Campeachy, where all goods may be stored for one year, without being liable to duty, on paying 2 per cent for storage; which 2 per cent is payable within thirty days after the goods are entered.

Art. 2. Goods or merchandise taken from the depot before the end of a year, for exportation, are not subject to either state or municipal duty.

Art. 3. Goods or merchandise taken from the depot, for the state market, or which have remained a whole year in the depot, will pay both state and municipal duty.

Art. 4. Provisions, pitch, and inflammable stuffs, empty vessels of every description, and naval stores, are prohibited from being stored in the depot.

Art. 5. The government of the depot will be administered by officers appointed by the state.

TONNAGE DUTIES OF TEXAS.

The following copy of a new revenue law of Texas, entitled "An act for the protection and encouragement of the commerce of the republic of Texas," and the information annexed to it, have been received at the department of state, at Washington, (March 14, 1844,) from the United States consuls at Galveston and Sabine, Texas:—

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the Republic of Texas, in Congress assembled,* That, from and after the passage of this act, the collectors of the various ports of this republic shall be required to lay (levy) upon, and collect from all foreign vessels belonging to powers between which, and this republic, no treaty exists, making other provision, a tonnage of one dollar per ton.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted,* That vessels bearing the flag of this republic have the exclusive privilege of the coasting trade, and that they be free from the charge of tonnage duties on arriving in any ports of this republic; and that all laws contravening the provisions of this act be, and the same are hereby, repealed.

SAMUEL HOUSTON.

Approved February 5th, 1844.

The former duty was sixty cents per ton on sailing vessels, and thirty cents on steamboats, according to register tonnage. The present law imposes the same duty on both; but the president of the republic, using a discretionary power, has declared that the tonnage duty of one dollar shall be imposed on steamboats according to their carrying capacity only.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

CANAL COMMERCE AT PITTSBURGH, PA.—1842-43.

STATEMENT OF THE LEADING ARTICLES SHIPPED FROM, AND RECEIVED AT PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA, BY THE CANAL, IN THE YEARS 1842 AND 1843.

Shipped eastward, from Pittsburgh.

Articles.	1843.	1842.	Inc. in 1843.
Flour,.....bbls.	130,858	114,103	16,755
Bacon,.....lbs.	23,004,922	13,286,223	9,718,699
Butter and cheese,.....	1,433,266	956,454	476,812
Lard and tallow,.....	2,673,423	1,362,685	1,310,751
Pork,.....bbls.	3,124	2,658	466
Wool,.....lbs.	2,500,789	1,268,733	1,252,056
Cotton,.....	1,080,337	952,985	127,352
Hemp,.....	1,289,236	147,806	1,141,430
Tobacco,.....	18,173,849	13,998,348	4,175,501
Whiskey,.....galls.	115,242	65,076	50,166
Oil,.....	45,661	10,130	35,551
Sundries,.....lbs.	2,661,312	1,651,889	1,009,423

Brought westward, to Pittsburgh.

Articles.	1843.	1842.	Inc. in 1843.
Hardware,.....lbs.	5,288,527	2,324,519	2,904,008
Queensware,.....	1,750,075	1,080,175	669,900
Mdse., including brown muslins,.....	21,390,266	14,540,412	6,849,854
Groceries, including coffee,.....	13,061,951	4,952,577	8,109,374
Tobacco, manufactured,.....	431,238	368,618	62,620
Leather,.....	372,402	30,642	341,760
Drugs and dye-stuffs,.....	769,091	182,193	586,898
Oil,.....galls.	33,610	16,355	17,255
Clay and gypsum,.....tons	317	196	121
Salt,.....bush.	211,392	188,508	22,884
Blooms,.....lbs.	17,838,936	14,106,698	3,732,238
Sundries,.....	1,523,453	905,407	618,046

Increase on the above twelve items shipped eastward, 23,760,854 lbs., or 11,880 tons; increase on the eleven items brought westward, (omitting salt,) 24,289,248 lbs., or 12,144 tons.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF SANDUSKY, HURON, AND MILAN.

A subscriber, residing at Sandusky, has furnished, for publication in this Magazine, the following tables, exhibiting the quantity and value of the exports of Sandusky, Huron, and Milan, for the year 1843. Our correspondent says—"I can predict, with safety, a very large increase of produce shipped from this port, after the completion of another railroad, now rapidly progressing, (fifty-six miles long,) terminating in the heart of the richest wheat-growing country in the state, (Richland.) This road cuts off Milan from the best trade she is now enjoying. It will be completed in eighteen months."

STATEMENT OF EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF SANDUSKY, FOR THE YEAR 1843.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Wheat, bush.	441,633	$375,388 05	Oats, bush.	2,564	$641 00
Corn, bush.	19,090	6,681 50	Beans, bbls.	103	412 00
Pork, bbls.	12,638	101,104 00	Whiskey, and high wines, bbls.	1,714	17,140 00
Beef, bbls.	1,515	9,468 75	Furs, packs.	219	6,500 00
Flour, bbls.	32,219	153,040 25	Rags, lbs.	31,247	937 41
Lard, bbls.	1,308	13,080 00	Nuts, bbls.	23	69 00
" kegs.	1,519	5,316 50	Oil, bbls.	4	98 00
Butter, kegs.	2,065	14,455 00	Oil-cake meal, bbls.	12	12 00
Tallow, bbls.	199	3,980 00	Live hogs, No.	1,500	4,500 00
Seeds, bbls.	4,851	48,510 00	Scraps, bbls.	147	294 00
Ashes, casks.	2,164	43,280 00	Sundries, bbls. and boxes.	290	1,300 00
Wool, lbs.	57,695	16,154 60	Stone, cords.	1,500	3,000 00
Feathers, lbs.	6,345	2,220 75	Crude plaster, tons.	1,000	4,500 00
Hides, green, No.	1,282	4,615 20	Ground " tons.	200	1,600 00
Ginseng, bbls.	124	2,480 00	Cut cedar posts, No.	80	400 00
Beeswax, bbls.	66	3,564 00			
Fruit, bbls.	135	270 00			
Soap and candles, boxes.	100	350 00	Total,		$845,362 01

IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF SANDUSKY, IN 1843.

Articles.	Quantity.	Articles.	Quantity.
Lumber, M. feet.	1,092	Fish, bbls.	474
Shingles, M.	1,246	Salt, bbls.	21,000
Shingle-bolts, cords.	73	Merchandise, tons.	5,500
Lath, M.	64		

STATEMENT OF EXPORTS FROM HURON AND MILAN, FOR THE YEAR 1843.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Wheat, bush.	586,051	$498,143 35	Butter, kegs.	1,075	$7,525 00
Corn, bush.	11,856	4,149 60	Flaxseed, bbls.	384	1,536 00
Oats, bush.	4,112	1,028 00	Cloverseed, bbls.	65	975 00
Pork, bbls.	7,560	60,480 00	Hides, green, lbs.	25,950	1,038 00
Flour, bbls.	24,179	102,760 75	Wool, lbs.	39,980	11,194 40
Ashes, casks.	2,582	51,640 00	Feathers, lbs.	1,965	687 75
High wines, bbls.	876	10,512 00	Staves, No.	854,048	17,080 00
Whiskey, bbls.	1,065	9,052 50	Live hogs, tons.	50	2,000 00
Beef, bbls.	2,172	13,575 00	Tobacco, hhds.	21	840 00
Timothy-seed, bbls.	1,559	7,405 25	Grindstones, tons.	10	150 00
Tallow, bbls.	75	1,125 00	Pig iron, tons.	20	900 00
Lard, bbls.	520	5,200 00			
" kegs.	600	2,100 00	Total,		$811,097 60

IMPORTS INTO THE PORTS OF HURON AND MILAN, IN 1843.

Articles.	Quantity.	Articles.	Quantity.
Merchandise, tons.	20,550	Shingles, M.	1,075
Salt, bbls.	14,350	Shingle-bolts, cords.	225
Fish, bbls.	1,055	Stone, cords.	25
Plaster, bbls.	455	Steamboat wood, cords.	3,538
Lumber, feet.	90,989		

BRITISH EAST INDIA SHIPPING TRADE.

The quarterly statement, printed by the East India and China Association, of the British ships entered inwards and cleared outwards from and to places within the limits of the company's charter, has recently made its appearance, and presents a survey of the whole of the years 1842 and 1843. The following table will give an idea of the company's operations, and its increase and decrease :—

Entered Inwards.	Years.	No. ships.	Tons.	Cleared Outwards.	Years.	No. ships.	Tons.
London,.....	1842	525	200,600	London,.....	1842	454	197,338
"	1843	542	222,810	"	1843	395	162,628
Liverpool,....	1842	189	80,066	Liverpool,....	1842	210	89,525
"	1843	162	73,170	"	1843	255	99,960
Bristol and Hull,.....	1842	10	3,879	Bristol and Hull,.....	1842	11	3,421
"	1843	12	4,447	"	1843	11	4,259
Oth. B. ports,.	1842	27	8,882	Oth. B. ports,.	1842	145	56,485
"	1843	44	16,050	"	1843	165	59,665
Of the above, there were from—				Of the above, there were for—			
Calcutta,.....	1842	224	98,921	Mauritius,...	1842	167	61,101
"	1843	255	121,146	"	1843	144	56,984
Mauritius,....	1842	105	24,421	Bombay,.....	1842	124	73,686
"	1843	71	20,107	"	1843	111	55,917
Bombay,.....	1842	107	59,408	Cape of G'd Hope,..	1842	77	18,182
"	1843	90	50,990		1843	114	29,602

EXPORTS FROM JAVA FOR TEN YEARS.

A Table showing the quantity of Exports from Java in each year, from 1833 *to* 1842, *inclusive, derived from a Java Prices-Current, furnished for publication in the Merchants' Magazine.*

List of Exports from Java for ten Years.

Years.	Coffee. *Piculs.*	Sugar. *Piculs.*	Rice. *Piculs.*	Indigo. *Piculs.*	Tin. *Piculs.*	Nutmegs. *Piculs.*
1833,.....	260,166	210,947	1,339,420	217,480	44,314	1,171
1834,.....	455,808	367,131	174,950	250,423	39,165	4,200
1835,.....	446,871	439,454	767,310	533,753	40,836	3,886
1836,.....	498,077	509,513	1,092,900	407,100	47,739	5,022
1837,.....	684,947	676,085	1,003,550	822,492	44,457	3,778
1838,.....	590,000	735,000	950,000	743,000	14,513	5,830
1839,.....	757,476	871,747	1,112,000	1,191,636	47,631	5,026
1840,.....	1,132,124	1,024,493	680,909	2,123,911	62,334	3,600
1841,.....	961,466	1,046,576	676,212	1,827,386	48,339	5,125
1842,.....	1,013,854	884,685	884,157	1,627,437	69,127	5,129

List of Exports from Java for ten Years—Continued.

Years.	Mace. *Piculs.*	Cloves. *Piculs.*	Rattans. *Piculs.*	Hides. *Pieces.*	Arrack. *Leaguers.*	Pepper. *Piculs.*
1833,.....	630	1,942	16,731	75,421	1,433	5,407
1834,.....	1,192	4,040	14,909	53,000	1,497	7,704
1835,.....	1,606	4,566	4,905	139,000	2,175	11,869
1836,.....	990	2,185	49,968	120,000	1,477	7,066
1837,.....	1,213	2,925	33,539	93,000	1,663	12,487
1838,.....	1,500	2,912	35,360	71,000	2,954	8,577
1839,.....	1,580	2,334	40,068	130,000	4,261	11,043
1840,.....	870	53	28,032	110,494	5,261	9,911
1841,.....	1,171	7,600	37,017	120,072	4,670	13,245
1842,.....	1,432	1,718	36,594	167,677	4,668	10,441

MERCHANDISE INSPECTED, &c., IN NEW YORK.

Pursuant to requirements of an act of the state of New York "concerning the inspection laws," the Hon. Samuel Young, secretary of the state, transmitted, on the 1st

of March, 1844, a statement of the reports of the inspectors, measurers, and weighers of provisions and produce, exhibiting the quantity and value of the property inspected, measured, and weighed, during the year 1843. From an official copy of this report, which has been published by the legislature, we derive the following condensed statement:—

The whole number of inspectors, weighers, and measurers, in commission during the year 1843, was 379. Of this number, only 68 transmitted their returns to the state department. By the report of the measurer-general of grain, in the city of New York, it appears that there were measured, during the year 1843, 2,224,641 bushels of grain, valued at $1,121,439 06;—that 593,433½ bushels had been received from other states; leaving 1,631,206½ bushels as the product of the state of New York. The present weigher-general of merchandise, of the city of New York, received his appointment on the 4th of October, 1843; and his report, therefore, gives only the quantity weighed from that date to the 1st of January, 1844, a period of only about four months. The merchandise weighed by his predecessor, during the former part of the year, has not been reported. If it is deemed necessary to have merchandise inspected at all, the returns of the inspectors should be enforced; and the inspectors, &c., failing to comply with the requirements of the law, should forfeit their office and its emoluments, which, it will be seen, are large.

The following table exhibits the quantity and value of the articles inspected by the sixty-eight inspectors who have made returns to the department:—

Articles.	Inspected.	Value.
Flour and meal,.....bbls.	2,162,906½	$9,995,100 63½
Beef,.....	40,371	241,965 00
Pork,.....	137,906	1,270,841 37
Leather,.....lbs.	13,624,769	2,092,301 98
Domestic distilled spirits,.....galls.	2,339,915	512,941 05
Staves and heading,.....pieces	4,778,204	130,207 72
Pot ashes,.....lbs.	24,017,803	1,057,950 69
Pearl ashes,.....	7,690,512	396,414 73
Green hides and skins,.....	1,178,903	45,277 75
Fish, or liver oil,.....galls.	24,115	10,128 30
Leaf tobacco,.....hhds.	11,819	889,923 00
Hops,.....lbs.	660,911	43,611 48
Lumber,.....feet	51,592,348	875,608 05
Grain,.....bush.	2,224,641	1,104,672 62
Total,.....		$18,666,944 37½
Valuation in 1842,.....		17,931,660 78
Increase in valuation in 1843,.....		$735,283 59½

The gross amount of fees received by the sixty-eight inspectors who made returns, for their services, amounts to the sum of *one hundred and sixty-one thousand nine hundred and twenty-one dollars, and twenty-one cents;* which gives a salary of more than $2,380 to each of the sixty-eight inspectors. The highest sum received by a single inspector, (the inspector of pot and pearl ashes, in the city of New York,) was $36,034 22; nearly one-third more than the president of the United States receives. Mr. Young, secretary of the state, in his report of the inspections of 1842, urges the repeal of the compulsory provisions of the inspection laws. In that report, he says—"It is time to examine, in all its details, this antiquated system, which has inflicted immense expense upon both producer and consumer; which affords constant temptation to fraud; produces an avidity for fees, creating double and partial inspection; and which stifles invention, paralyzes competition, and represses every motive to improvement."

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES

FOR FIFTY-FOUR YEARS—PAYMENTS INTO THE TREASURY, AND COST OF COLLECTING REVENUE.

Years.	Val. of all exports from U. States.	Val. of imports into the U. States.	Payments into treasury on account of them.	Cost of collection, &c.
1789,*.....	$20,205,156	.....	.....	.....
1791,†.....	19,012,041	$52,200,000	$4,399,472 99	$239,541 03
1792,.....	20,753,098	31,500,000	3,443,070 85	161,754 80
1793,.....	26,109,572	31,100,000	4,255,306 56	188,362 13
1794,.....	33,026,233	34,600,000	4,801,065 28	221,090 23
1795,.....	47,989,472	69,756,268	5,588,461 26	260,359 28
1796,.....	97,064,097	81,436,164	6,567,087 94	291,206 92
1797,.....	56,850,206	75,379,406	7,549,649 65	343,434 26
1798,.....	61,527,097	68,551,700	7,106,061 93	375,879 33
1799,.....	78,665,522	79,068,148	6,610,449 31	412,183 45
1800,.....	70,971,780	91,252,768	9,080,932 73	440,373 62
1801,.....	94,115,925	111,363,511	10,750,778 93	482,772 70
1802,.....	72,483,160	76,333,333	12,438,235 74	492,205 55
1803,.....	55,800,033	64,666,666	10,479,417 61	405,536 37
1804,.....	77,699,074	85,000,000	11,098,565 33	488,333 24
1805,.....	95,566,921	120,000,000	12,936,487 04	557,541 94
1806,.....	101,536,963	129,000,000	14,667,698 17	613,785 88
1807,.....	108,343,150	138,500,000	15,845,521 61	615,621 71
1808,.....	22,430,960	56,990,000	16,363,550 58	565,235 14
1809,.....	52,203,231	59,400,000	7,257,506 62	498,130 77
1810,.....	66,757,974	85,400,000	8,583,309 31	437,208 72
1811,.....	61,316,831	53,400,000	13,313,222 73	441,129 02
1812,.....	38,527,236	77,030,000	8,958,777 53	477,726 57
1813,.....	27,855,997	22,005,000	13,224,623 25	414,171 88
1814,.....	6,927,441	12,965,000	5,998,772 08	352,561 14
1815,.....	52,557,753	113,041,274	7,282,942 22	476,007 01
1816,.....	81,920,452	147,103,000	36,306,874 87	819,038 22
1817,.....	87,671,569	99,250,000	26,283,348 49	782,308 09
1818,.....	93,281,133	121,750,000	17,176,385 00	769,206 50
1819,.....	70,142,521	87,125,000	20,283,608 76	810,220 14
1820,.....	69,691,669	74,450,000	15,005,612 15	777,764 32
1821,.....	64,974,382	62,585,721	18,115,705 57	700,528 97
1822,.....	72,160,387	83,241,541	24,066,066 43	728,964 82
1823,.....	74,699,030	77,579,267	22,402,024 29	766,699 02
1824,.....	75,986,657	80,549,007	25,486,817 86	779,739 88
1825,.....	99,535,388	96,340,075	31,653,871 50	889,302 93
1826,.....	77,595,322	84,974,477	26,083,861 97	886,999 48
1827,.....	82,324,827	79,484,068	27,948,956 57	889,818 27
1828,.....	72,264,686	88,509,824	29,951,251 90	932,093 63
1829,.....	72,358,671	74,492,527	27,688,701 11	1,013,667 58
1830,.....	73,849,508	70,876,920	28,389,505 05	1,055,115 37
1831,.....	81,310,583	103,191,124	36,596,118 19	1,216,009 57
1832,.....	87,176,943	101,029,266	29,341,175 65	1,315,975 36
1833,.....	90,140,433	108,118,311	24,177,578 52	1,351,543 97
1834,.....	104,336,973	126,521,332	18,960,705 96	1,264,545 37
1835,.....	121,693,577	149,895,742	25,890,726 66	1,284,997 69
1836,.....	128,663,040	189,980,035	30,818,327 67	1,397,469 10
1837,.....	117,419,376	140,989,217	18,134,131 01	1,492,947 84
1838,.....	108,486,616	113,717,404	19,702,825 45	1,514,633 34
1839,.....	121,028,416	162,092,132	25,554,533 96	1,724,591 89
1840,.....	132,085,946	107,141,519	15,104,790 93	1,542,319 24
1841,.....	121,851,803	127,946,177	19,919,492 17	1,483,960 08
1842,.....	104,691,534	100,162,087	16,622,746 84	1,458,442 58
1843,‡.....	100,063,266	89,260,895	§17,000,000 00	.....

* From March 4. The nett amount of duties on imports, from the 1st of October, 1789, to 30th of September, 1790, according to the official report of the secretary, was $1,903,709 48½.

† To December 31.

‡ A part of the last quarter estimated.

§ This is not exact, but cannot be far out of the way. The amount of duties during the nine months from Jan. 1, 1843, to Sept. 30, in the same year, was $13,179,116.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Narrative of the Texan Santa Fe Expedition. Comprising a Tour through Texas, &c., &c.* By GEORGE WILKINS KENDALL. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is one of the most wonderful series of barbarities, and of romantic adventures, we have ever read. Mr. Kendall has written his account of the whole matter with a spirit and in a vein of humor we have seldom seen exhibited anywhere. It is by far the most interesting and entertaining book of travels published this season; and has already, we have no doubt, attained a popularity without example in the history of similar works. The detail of the treacherous betrayal of the expedition into the hands of the Mexicans, their subsequent march to the city of Mexico, accompanied by incidents of the most infamous atrocity and outrageous barbarity; his long imprisonment in the prisons and hospitals of that capital, and the whole train of circumstances which attended his captivity, are of the most thrilling and exciting character. Conspicuous among the characteristics of the work, is the spirit of humor, and hearty good nature, which pervades the whole of it. Mr. Kendall's spirit was not daunted in the least by the extraordinary scenes through which he passed; and his courage and humor, his endurance, and noble-hearted bearing throughout the whole, lend the charm of romance to his remarkable book. It will be found to contain much original and very valuable information concerning Mexico, Texas, and the sections through which he passed, and a mass of pleasant anecdote and remark.

2.—*Tables of Interest, by Months and Days, and by Current Days, at* 360 *and* 365 *to the Year, computed at* 7 *per cent, and adapted to other Rates. Decimally arranged under the head of Time. Together with Factors for calculating Interest, and convenient Time Tables.* By GEORGE A. STANSBURY, Esq., Counsellor at Law, large 8vo., pp. 184. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We cannot, perhaps, show the convenience of these tables so well, in any other way, as to state a few of their properties in detail. The interest in cents, on any number of dollars less than a hundred, on any number of hundreds of dollars up to ten thousand, and from one thousand to one hundred thousand dollars, are each given, for any specified period less than a year, by inspection of a table which, though printed in large figures, occupies less than one-third of a page; and a similar table, for the period of a year, is always found, without turning a leaf. This is doubtless the most effective plan ever adopted, and gives interest under all the various circumstances of time and amount, by very few and convenient additions. As the method is explained by which interest, at any proposed rate, may be obtained by use of these tables, they are, in all respects, well adapted to supply the wants of banking institutions and commercial men; and, indeed, of all who require the convenience of such works.

3.—*The Library of American Biography.* Conducted by JARED SPARKS. Second series. Vol. 1. 12mo., pp. 398. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1844.

The resumption of Mr. Sparks' labors in this interesting department of literature will, we have no doubt, meet with a hearty welcome from all who appreciate the solid and useful in book-making. The first series consisted of ten volumes, and this new collection is to be continued on precisely the same plan, and confined to the lives of such individuals as have been distinguished in America, particularly in that part which now constitutes the United States. The volume before us contains the lives of Robert Cavelier de la Salle, and Patrick Henry. The former was prepared by Mr. Sparks, and the latter by Alexander H. Everett. It is quite unnecessary to add that they are written in an elegant and scholarly style, and will be esteemed, in all time to come, as model biographies. The volume is, in every respect, an elegant specimen of typographical neatness and beauty, in no wise inferior to the handsomest productions of the British press.

4.—*Applied Chemistry—in Manufactures, Arts, and Domestic Economy.* Edited by EDWARD ANDREW PARNELL, author of the "Elements of Chemical Analysis." 8vo., pp. 175. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This valuable treatise is divided into four parts. The first, "preliminary observations," comprises considerations on the fundamental doctrines of chemistry, including an account of the laws which govern, and the phenomena and changes which accompany the chemical combination of different bodies. The second, on gas illumination, gives a detailed account of the process of making light gas from coal, and the chemical and physical properties of the constituents of coal gas, the modes of burning gas, and the economy of gas illumination; descriptions for making light gas from other sources than coal, &c. The third part points out the means for effectually guarding against the decomposing influences of air and water in timber. Dyeing and calico-printing forms the comprehensive subject of the fourth, or concluding part of the volume. Most of the leading processes practised by the calico-printers of England are described, accompanied with explanations of the scientific principles on which they are based.

5.—*Essays on the Punishment of Death.* By CHARLES SPEAR, author of the "Tittles of Jesus," "Essays on Imprisonment for Debt," etc. 12mo., pp. 237.

We have read this admirable series of Essays on the Punishment of Death with deep interest; and, in connection with the agitation of the subject in several of the legislatures of the states, and other signs of the time, it seems to us to indicate the progress of reform in regard to this relic of barbarism, which must eventually yield to the spirit of the Gospel. The author seems to have compassed the whole subject; and to us his arguments, figures, and facts, strengthen a conviction that our whole heart and judgment assent to, viz: that the punishment of death should be stricken from the statute-books of every government whose laws are professedly based upon the ethics of Christ. We hope the honest, but mistaken advocates of legalized murder, as well as those who have one lingering doubt upon the subject, will read this book; as its force and truthfulness must lead the former to review their opinions, and scatter to the winds the misgivings of the latter.

6.—*Elementary Instruction in Chemical Analysis.* By C. REMIGIUS FRESENIUS, Chemical Assistant in the Laboratory of the University of Gressen. With a Preface, by Professor LEIBIG. Edited by J. FLOYD BULLOCK, &c. 12mo., pp. 284. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The work of Dr. Fresenius has already passed through two editions in Germany. It is an admirable treatise of instruction, combining simplicity, usefulness, and the facility with which it may be apprehended, in a remarkable degree. The work has met with great success in Germany, having been adopted in the Pharmaceutical Institution of Rouen, as well as the Laboratory of Gressen; an institution to which chemical students in Europe annually flock in great numbers, for the completion of their studies. The decided recommendation of Dr. Leibig, however, who now stands at the head of chemical science, renders other approbation unnecessary.

7.—*Knowles' Elocutionist; a First Class Rhetorical Reader, and Regulation Book, containing the only Essential Principles of Elocution, &c., &c., with Pieces for Reading and Declamation. Designed for Schools and Colleges.* By JAMES SHERIDAN KNOWLES, author of "Virginius," "William Tell," etc. Adapted to the United States by EPES SARGENT. New York: James Mowatt & Co.

The present selection contains one hundred and fifty-six pieces, suited to every variety of declamation. Mr. Sargent has retained all the selections of Knowles that are of universal interest, and of perpetual value, and supplied the place of those omitted with others more appropriate to the tastes and wants of American youth. The introductory essay, on the principles of elocution, is admirably adapted to the wants of the student. It is clear and concise; and we consider it, on the whole, the best elementary work of the kind in use.

8.—*Drawing-Room Library.* Edited by EPES SARGENT. New York: James D. Mowatt & Co.

The three numbers of this serial already published, embrace the Light of the Light-House, and other Poems, by Epes Sargent, now for the first time collected; Recollections of the Emperor Napoleon, by Mrs. Abell, during the time spent by Napoleon in her father's house, at St. Helena; and Autumn Flowers, and other Poems, by Mrs. Southey, formerly Caroline Bowles. A more tasteful or judicious selection of unpublished specimens of literature could not well have been made; and we feel assured that Mr. Sargent's chaste and classic taste will permit nothing to appear in the series but the rarest and choicest gems of literature.

9.—*Preston's Treatise on Book-Keeping.* New York: Collins, Brother & Co.

In this treatise, a variety of examples are exhibited, both of the single and of the double entry forms; from which the farmer, mechanic, and merchant, may make a selection suited to the peculiarities of the business or occupation in which he may be engaged. Among other features of the work, we discover that the method of converting a single into a double entry set of books, is well illustrated, by two or three comprehensive examples; and, we might add, that the averaging of accounts has, in its concluding pages, been elaborately treated. In short, the work throughout is manifestly an able and scientific performance, and promises to be as beneficial to the community as it is creditable to its author and publisher.

10.—*Preston's Tables of Interest, at 7 per cent, and Preston's Tables of Interest, at 6 per cent.* New York: Collins, Brother & Co.

These tables, as appear from unequivocal testimony from all quarters, have, for many years, been regarded by the business portion of the community with much favor. Their reputation for convenience and for accuracy, is proverbial. But few works of this kind have possessed the rare merit that called for a second edition. These have already passed through several editions, and their popularity furnishes conclusive proof both of their practical utility, and of the sound judgment of the author of this and other valuable works.

11.—*History of the Great Reformation of the Sixteenth Century, in Germany, Switzerland, etc.* By J. H. MERLE D'AUBIGNE. 8vo., pp. 362. Philadelphia: James M. Campbell & Co.

We have from time to time noticed the several editions of this work that have appeared during the last eighteen months. The present edition was originally published without notes. We stated, in noticing the duodecimo edition of Mr. Carter, that it was the only one embracing the notes. In doing so, the publisher of the work before us intimated that we had done injustice to him. We therefore take pleasure in stating that Mr. Campbell has added the notes and references to his edition of the History of the Great Reformation. On the whole, we consider the notes of very little importance to the general reader, as they refer mainly to rare works in foreign languages.

12.—*Woman's Worth; or, Hints to Raise the Female Character.* New York: D. Appleton & Co.

An excellent essay, replete with sensible hints and suggestions in regard to the education, influence, and circumstances of woman, that must prove a most acceptable directory and guide to her in all the relations of life. Let its dicta be regarded, and every true man, at least, will feel and acknowledge "woman's worth."

13.—*Sacred Songs*, by THOMAS MOORE. *Hebrew Melodies*, by LORD BYRON. *Palestine*, by REGINALD HEBER. Boston: Saxton, Pierce & Co.

14.—*The Loves of the Angels. A Poem.* By THOMAS MOORE. Boston: Saxton, Pierce & Co.

Two handsomely printed and gilded volumes of as pure and beautiful poetry as any in our language.

15.—*Sermons bearing on the Subjects of the Day.* By JOHN HENRY NEWMAN, B. D., Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. 12mo., pp. 357. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This beautiful volume contains twenty-six sermons, bearing on the subjects of the day. Some of them are practical, and others touch upon the peculiar doctrines of the Church. Mr. Newman is one of the most intellectual and learned divines of the English Church; and, however dissenters may differ with the author, in his opinions in regard to the formularies of the Church, no one, we think, can fail to admire the genius of the accomplished sermonizer.

16.—*Rimini, and other Poems.* By LEIGH HUNT. Boston: William D. Ticknor.

The leading piece, "Rimini," which occupies the larger portion of the volume, is one of the most exquisite specimens of narrative poetry in the language. Several of the shorter poems are beautiful; and the "Feasts of the Poets" is in a vein of quiet humor, and gentle criticism, in perfect keeping with the universally acknowledged good taste of the author.

17.—*Illustrations of the Law of Kindness.* By the Rev. W. MONTGOMERY. 18mo., pp. 252. New York: C. L. Stickney.

This little volume is designed to exhibit the power of goodness in overcoming evil. The illustrations are drawn from history and daily experience, and must convince every one that love is omnipotent in its influence, on even the most depraved heart. We earnestly hope it will have a wide circulation, as it breathes, throughout, the genuine spirit of Christianity.

18.—*Uncle Barnaby; or, Recollections of his Character and Opinions.* 12mo., pp. 315. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This little volume contains some very sensible opinions on the ordinary events and circumstances of life, and just criticisms on such proverbial expressions as, "I cannot afford it;" "I will see about it;" "Do it, and it will be done;" "If I were you;" "I don't care," &c. It is writtrn in a clever, sententious style; and the illustrations are at once happy and forcible.

19.—*Letters on the Moral and Religious Duties of Parents.* By a CLERGYMAN. 18mo., pp. 156. Boston: Benjamin B. Mussey.

An excellent little manual of parental duties, enforcing the importance of the early moral and religious culture of their children, in an agreeable and pleasant series of well written letters.

20.—*Memoirs of the Lives of the Poets. Biographical Sketches of Women celebrated in Ancient and Modern Poetry.* By Mrs. JAMIESON, author of the "Diary of an Ennuyée," etc. 12mo., pp. 376. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This delightful volume forms one of the admirable series of works published under the appropriate title of the "Ladies' Cabinet Library," embracing a series of works eminently calculated to improve the intellect, and elevate the taste of woman.

21.—*The Juvenile Library; a Collection of Moral Tales and Sketches.* Principally from the pen of Mrs. CAROLINE M. SAWYER. 18mo., pp. 254. New York: C. L. Stickney.

An excellent collection of tales and sketches, well adapted to impart the principles of virtue, while they gratify the taste and please the imagination of the juvenile reader.

22.—*What to Do, and How to Do it; or, Morals and Manners taught by Examples.* By PETER PARLEY; and *Wit Bought; or, the Life and Adventures of Robert Merry.* By PETER PARLEY. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Two very pretty volumes, inculcating, in Peter Parley's happiest vein of anecdote, and agreeable narrative, the salutary lessons of real goodness.

23.—*Simmonds' Colonial Magazine, and Foreign Miscellany.* Edited by P. L. Simmonds, Esq., F. S. S., Honorary and Corresponding Member of the Statistical and Geographical Societies of Paris, &c., &c. London: P. L. Simmonds.

We have received the numbers of this valuable Magazine for January, February, and March, 1844. The leading object of the work is to diffuse accurate information touching the geography, history, statistics, commerce, &c., of the British dependencies or colonies, in the four quarters of the globe. Mr. Simmonds has long been connected with the Foreign and Colonial Office in London, and has made himself familiar with the affairs and condition of the British possessions abroad. The work is ably conducted, and embraces a vast amount of information, of great value to the merchant, statesman, and political economist. We esteem it one of the best publications of the British press. To us, it is of more value than any with which we are acquainted. We cordially recommend it to our numerous subscribers in British America.

24.—*The Anglo-American.* Edited by A. D. Patterson. New York: E. S. Garvin & Co.

We seldom find space to notice the Journals of the day, and it is rather out of our province. We cannot, however, refrain from expressing our admiration of the talent evinced in the conduct of this Journal. The selections from the foreign periodical press are of the choicest kind, and display sound judgment, and the most correct and discriminating taste. It, on the whole, furnishes the best compend of European literature and news of any of the weekly Journals in this country.

25.—*Religion in America; or, an Account of the Origin, Progress, Relation to the State, and Present Condition of the Evangelical Churches in the United States. With Notices of the Unevangelical Denominations.* By Robert Baird. 8vo., pp. 343. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is quite a readable book, and contains considerable information concerning the history of sects in the United States. It is not remarkably philosophical; and, although Mr. Baird professes to be quite tolerant, the Catholics, Unitarians, Swedenborgians, and many others who are denominated unevangelical, would hardly consider his criticisms either liberal or just.

BOOKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, PUBLISHED SINCE OUR LAST.

1.—*Rural Life in England. A Domestic Romance.* By the author of "Lights and Shadows of Factory Life." New York: J. Winchester.

2.—*Facts and Arguments on the Transmission of Intellectual and Moral Qualities from Parents to Offspring.* Second edition, improved. 12mo., pp. 191. New York: J. Winchester.

3.—*The Musical Album; a Collection of Concerted Pieces for Soprano Voices.* Edited by E. Ives, jr. Parts 1, 2, and 3. pp. 48. New York: J. Winchester.

4.—*The Fortune-Hunter; or, The Adventures of a Man about Town.* A Novel of New York Society. By Mrs. Helen Berkley. 8vo., pp. 108. New York: J. Winchester.

5.—*A Dissertation on the Rule of Faith. Delivered before the American Bible Society, and published by their request.* By Gardiner Spring. 8vo., pp. 104. New York: Leavitt, Trow & Co.

6.—*The Adventures of Hercules Hardy; or, Guiana in 1772.* By Eugene Sue. Translated from the French by Thomas Pooley, Esq. 8vo., pp. 70. New York: J. Winchester.

7.—*The Banking-House. A History in Three Parts.* 8vo., pp. 56. New York: J. Winchester.

8.—*The Complete Florist; a Manual of Gardening, containing Practical Instructions for the Management of Greenhouse Plants, and for the Cultivation of the Shrubbery, the Flower Garden, and the Lawn. With Descriptions of the Plants and Trees most worthy of culture, in each Department. With Additions and Amendments. Adapted to the climate of the United States.* Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

9.—*The Tales of the Hall. A Poem.* By the Rev. George Crabbe. 12mo., pp. 129. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.

10.—*A Popular View of the Doctrines of Charles Fourier.* By Parke Godwin. 8vo., pp. 120. New York: J. S. Redfield.

11.—*Pocket Editions of Select Novels, No. 2. Young Kate; or, the Rescue. A Tale of the Great Kanawha.* Two volumes in one. 18mo., pp. 293. New York: Harper & Brothers.

12.—*A Defence of the Christian Religion, &c.* By Hon. Daniel Webster. 8vo., pp. 76. New York: Mark H. Newman.

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME X. JUNE, 1844. NUMBER VI.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JUNE, 1844.

Art. I.—TRIESTE, AND THE PARTICIPATION OF AUSTRIA IN THE COMMERCE OF THE WORLD, DURING THE LAST TEN YEARS.*

(FROM 1832 TO 1841.)

THE course of trade during the last ten years presents to the merchant, the historical investigator, the statesman, the psychologist, and to every thinking man such a variety of aspects, and so many surprising phenomena and striking facts, that it would be an undertaking as interesting as profitable to elucidate it in all these points of view, and to investigate its actual results, in order to erect, upon such a foundation, logical conclusions for the future.

But from the design of these sheets, it cannot be expected, that we should attempt so comprehensive a work, one which would require such varied powers, and even should we succeed in uniting the qualifications necessary for such a purpose, our limits would not permit investigations so extensive.

But the more this subject has excited, and will continue hereafter to claim, general attention, the more interests are connected with its present and future condition, so much the more do we feel ourselves called upon to discuss its bearings, so far as they concern our own locality, in order to explain, from the history of the past, events which we deeply lament, and which might lead to an erroneous judgment upon its domestic and foreign relations, and to point out, from the position of an unprejudiced spectator, its prospects for the future.

With this view, we lay before our readers a survey of the maritime trade of Trieste during this period, in the annexed tables, one of which comprises the imports and exports by sea, arranged by articles and value; the other, the distribution of this trade, according to countries and flags. Both are drawn from authentic sources, and compiled with all the care

* Translated for the Merchants' Magazine from the Austrian Lloyd's Journal, by the Hon. GEO. P. MARSH, Member of Congress from Vermont.

and accuracy which could be reasonably expected from such researches. The first naturally falls into two divisions, imports and exports. In the former the principle has been adopted of designating *foreign* merchandise in detail, and *domestic* wares collectively; in the latter, on the contrary, of detailing the *domestic*, and estimating collectively the *foreign* goods.

Before we enter upon a closer examination of these tables, let it be allowed us to premise a few words upon commerce in general, for the purpose of indicating the course of our reflections, thereby to explain our reasonings, and to make our observations more intelligible.

Commerce is the stamp of civilization. It originates in the development of civil society, and secures to society the means of its further advancement. This reciprocal influence is so indisputably proved by the history of mankind in all its phases and periods, that it is wholly unnecessary to adduce farther evidence. In forming a critical judgment upon commerce, therefore, the development of humanity in its moral and political formation, must be our only guide.

But no period of history surpasses in magnitude of results, either in a political or moral point of view, the events of the last century. What the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries had prepared, through the Reformation and the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope and America, the political and moral errors of the reigns of Louis XIII., XIV., and XV. brought to maturity. With the death of Charles VI., and the accession of Frederick II., begins that remarkable epoch of history, which, in less than seventy years, impressed an entirely new form upon all the moral and political relations, not only of Europe, but of the known world, and rendered productive industry and commerce the vivifying principle of the common weal, which they are recognized to be at the present moment.

The separation of the British colonies in North America from the mother country, their elevation to a powerful commercial state, the rise of a great empire in the East Indies from a few trading establishments, the French revolution and its mighty effects, the decline of the Spanish and Portuguese supremacy over the immense continent of South America, the consequences and fall of the imperial dominion in France, are events so important, that any one of them would have been alone sufficient to produce incalculable changes, no less in commerce than in politics. Surely, therefore, they could not all have occurred, without producing a powerful excitement in the minds of men, an excitement which must have been the more important and extensive, since it was the new doctrines of some leading spirits which in part produced it. It is manifest from the imperfections of human nature, that this excitement, in its struggle with conflicting principles, would naturally fall into by-paths, and overstep the bounds of right and truth. Its immediate consequence was a succession of desolating wars, which spread their destructive flames over both hemispheres, and in which all passions exhausted themselves in frightful excesses, till at length, purified by streams of blood, they brought men back to the conviction, that the end they had so long in vain pursued through devious routes could be attained only in the path of the divine law, justice, order and peace. General peace followed, and if we regard the principles which dictated this peace rather in a moral than political aspect, we shall arrive at the conviction, that the Holy Alliance which concluded it was indeed a holy one, and the maxims it avowed will stand forth in history to all time, as one of the greatest of her works. A new field was

opened for commerce. All prominent talent was directed to learning and the arts of peace. The agriculturist and citizen began to rejoice in their prosperity, and to find in its superfluities means of obtaining, by exchange, those necessaries which they had long been compelled to deny themselves. Thereby industry and trade obtained the elements of permanence and growth. But what was commerce before and after this period? After the discovery of America and the Cape of Good Hope had gradually changed its course from the southeastern states of Europe to those of the west, it was the aim of maritime powers to bind the newly established colonies to the mother country, by all the means of power and commercial monopoly, to extort from them their productions, and in return to force upon them the fruits of European productive and agricultural industry. They established the idea of constraint, as to the first principle of trade. It was even specified what must and what might not be cultivated. The colonists were required to bring their productions to the marts of the mother country, and here only could they provide themselves with necessaries of European growth and manufacture. Under such restraints, no true commerce could grow up. In the perpetual wars of the age, the great maritime powers alone could participate, because every commercial enterprise must be convoyed by an armed fleet. In course of time, therefore, all commerce passed from the hands of the Spaniards, Portuguese, and Dutch, into those of the French and English, and finally fell entirely under the control of the latter. Germany was altogether excluded, or like the Italian states, was able only through the medium of maritime powers to enjoy a very limited share in it, and even this was continually decreasing, in proportion as Spain, France and Holland as an integral part of the latter kingdom, were supplanted by the superiority of England, whose increasing productive industry had enabled her to dispense with continental manufactures, which had fallen into decay during the long continued wars.

What a different picture does the world present after the re-establishment of peace!—the United States already grown to a great commercial country, having incorporated within itself, by peaceable acquisition, the French colonies in Louisiana, and the Spanish in Florida; Brazil raised to an independent empire; the entire South American continent, even to its most insignificant portions, open to the trade of the whole world; Europe tranquilized, and at peace within herself; the seas alike free to all nations; the British possessions in the East Indies extended to a great empire; the Mediterranean cleared of pirates; the power of Turkey, so long the terror of Europe, confined within impassable limits. Certainly a magnificent prospect for trade and productive industry; and so much the more cheering as all this was placed under the guaranties of a state policy, which, grounded upon religion, morality and justice, for a long time had banished the rude power of arms and passions, and had afforded to civilization all the means of the greatest advancement.

With such facilities for the intercourse and traffic of nations with each other, there could be no question as to the results; and these did not disappoint the boldest expectations. They stand conspicuous in the history of recent times, and agreeable as it would be to follow and point out their gradual progress in detail, still it is not in accordance with our present purpose, and we must confine ourselves to the notice of comprehensive facts in general.

Standing armies, the change in the mode of carrying on war, and political combinations, had required a larger expenditure than the ordinary state revenue could meet, and led to national loans, which, in course of time, required a new system of political economy. This system, which in a measure proceeded from commerce, and was supported by it, had on the other hand an incalculable influence on trade itself. The circulating medium, money, was increased by this means of representation in an extraordinary, we might say, enormous degree. This increase led naturally to an extended credit system, which, in turn, offered new elements for further increase, and afforded trade abundant means for free and liberal movement.

We must again repeat, this is not the place to enter further upon the reciprocal influence of national and commercial credit, desirable as a thorough and logical treatment of the subject might be; but we believe we may appeal to this, as a cardinal fact, as a phenomenon, which belongs wholly to our age, and in which alone the course of trade finds an explanation. In it must we seek for the cause of the commercial superiority of the English nation. It was this, which provided the sums required for the establishment of her manufacturing and mechanical system, and threw into the background the individual industry of all other nations. It called forth the culture of cotton in the United States, which furnished these manufactories with the raw material. It is the mother of steam power and its mighty consequences; it united individual capital into a great whole; it created banks, saving-banks, life-insurances, and other establishments of the like nature, all which again became new means of circulation, and afforded commerce new aids. With such numerous and far-reaching impulses, how could it be possible always to recognise and observe just limits—to restrain a current, which such rich streams on all sides supplied. This does not lie in the nature or power of man. The proper bounds were transgressed, and a crisis in trade followed the reactions, in the latest and still existing of which our own city suffered severely.

After these general observations, let us return to the history of trade during the last ten years, and the part Trieste has taken in it.

After the conclusion of peace, Trieste was restored to the sceptre of Austria, and rejoiced in this restoration so much the more, as the occupation of the French, though but transitory, had destroyed not only its commercial relations, but its entire wealth. Trieste could not, like the Dutch ports, the Hanse Towns, Genoa, and even Venice, subsist upon the savings of centuries of continuous commercial prosperity. A young commercial city, it had as yet scarcely begun to attract notice, when war, the occupation of the French, and the depreciation of the currency, annihilated its prosperity. Its history, therefore, as a trading town, commences with the general peace, and under the influences of foreign and domestic fluctuations, it has developed itself, though but gradually, with the Austrian empire, whose principal seaport it is, and has attained to the rank of one of the most important ports of Europe, with the prospect and firm confidence of continued growth and prosperity.

When, after the brief fluctuations occasioned by the revolution of July, and the first alarm of the cholera, an increased and vigorous activity became apparent in trade, Trieste stood forth as a commercial place, which formed the emporium of the greater part of one of the mightiest empires

of Europe. It furnished this empire with all necessaries of foreign produce, extended its sources of supply to a portion of the Levant, to Naples and Sicily, the States of the Church, the southern provinces of Germany, and Switzerland. It occasioned an increasing exportation of domestic productions to all parts of the world; it had obtained firm footing in Brazil, for the importation of colonial merchandise, and made the United States and the West Indies, through means of England, available for the same purpose; it had acquired an important influence in Egypt, and had drawn the greater part of the productions of that country to its own mart. It carried on the traffic between the Levant and the north of Europe, and, by means of its favorable position, had become the central point of the trade in corn and oil, from the Black sea, the Levant, Sicily, and Italy, for all those countries, which from time to time had need of foreign grain. All this was accomplished in the natural course of gradual development, without artificial means, without banks, with no extravagant supports, or specially favorable circumstances. Trieste had obtained for herself the respect of the commercial world, by her activity, her uprightness, her clear and definite system of trade, free alike from chicanery, and intricate and tedious forms. She had gained a considerable commercial credit, and begun to attract the attention, not only of the trading, but also of the financial world. New establishments were founded, and the field of operation was visibly and daily increasing.

In whatever light we may regard the French revolution of July, our assertion, that it was followed by an unusual activity in trade, still remains a fact. Whether it were the moral excitement, which every such event occasions, or the immense sums put in circulation by it, or that men thought they recognised in its tranquil termination a new guaranty of the general peace, or whether it were all these together, certain it is, that from this time a generally diffused and deep-reaching interest in domestic productive industry displayed itself, and brought trade and business in general to an elevation, of which history can scarcely produce an example, and which was greatly promoted by the wonderful progress of mechanical art, by railways, and by steam navigation. This tendency was nowhere more readily responded to than in England and the United States, where it found a soil, which, previously prepared by a gradually increasing liberality of commercial policy, by large monetary institutions, and an extensive system of credit, grew up to a gigantic stature, and drew nourishment, both from the old world and the new, by the power of money. The United States, with a population proverbial for their love of gain and enterprise, stimulated by their numberless banks and unbounded credit system, and sustained by many capitalists in England, put themselves forward, as the medium of traffic and carriage for the whole world, and this Anglo-American union was highly successful in the attainment of this object. They carried the productions of Europe to the marts of the whole known world, and went so far in this, that the extraordinary demand for European manufactures, which was occasioned by this active impulse, made it for a time doubtful, whether the entire manufacturing power of Europe would suffice to supply it. A remarkable degree of prosperity in this branch of industry spread itself over England, France, Belgium, and even Switzerland and Germany, and an extraordinary increase in their resources was the consequence, which afterwards degenerated into a new species of intoxication in manufacturing speculations.

But, during the period from 1833 to 1836, a cheering activity was diffused over all these countries. In exchange for these manufactures, the productions of all countries were brought to the marts of Europe, and for the disposal of these, they sought chiefly those ports which offered the greatest freedom in traffic, and the least rivalry from colonial possessions. Among these, Trieste indisputably ranks, if not before all, at least before most of the European commercial towns. It was, therefore, in accordance with the natural course of things, that a great part of this Anglo-American importation should be directed to our city, that much in return should be exported from this place, and that the prosperous condition of manufacturing districts should increase this exportation, by enlarged demands for the raw material. The outlets for our merchandise were extended, in proportion to the increase of imports, without the necessity of a reduction of our prices to a point below the standard of other European markets; and this is the most certain proof, that the extent of our sales rests upon a solid and reasonable basis, and has been apparently reduced, only because our prices were sometimes held high, in comparison with those of other markets. This change in the course of European trade gave our city, during the years from 1832 to 1836, an appearance of sudden prosperity; and we, therefore, overlooked the fact, that our more intimate relations with the Levant, and especially with Egypt, had suffered from the political events in those countries. During the tumultuous excitement in the American states, already described, the profit to be expected from a well calculated undertaking, was no longer the principal aim. Money and credit have become so abundant, that men rushed indiscriminately into every new enterprise, regardless of consequences, and the expected gain frequently resulted in total loss. To this class, belong not only the traffic in merchandise, but the wildest speculations in real estate, and in magnificent improvements, for the purpose of making these speculations more lucrative.

Canals and railroads took the lead, and the rage for them rose to such a height, that trade was regarded only as a means to procure the sums necessary for indulging in these mad speculations. But what a strange infatuation was this, to buy up wild lands in the far west, while the arable lands lying near the coast were neglected to such a degree, that the United States were compelled to import grain from Europe in large quantities. This importation, and the immense sums required for that purpose, gave the first shock to the new system. Party spirit, and the abuse of the monied power, particularly for the promotion of such objects, gave the finishing stroke, and brought on the American commercial explosion of the years 1837–8. Little as we were in a situation to judge at once of the consequences of this crisis, in all its extensive bearings upon commercial relations in general, yet its immediate influence upon our own city was very considerable in its direct results: for it not only swept away the capital of the principal houses engaged in this branch of business, but also palsied the main spring of our commerce. Meanwhile, the pecuniary loss fell more heavily on foreign than domestic interests, and everything seemed to combine, with spontaneous effort, to restore the loss.

The extension of business had made an extension of credit necessary also with us. This suffered no essential diminution from the Anglo-American convulsion. The Vienna bankers met, with the greatest readi-

ness, the increased demands; and we flattered ourselves that these embarrassments would quickly pass over, and everything would soon return to its accustomed path. We were even so sure of this, that none of the cherished expectations, with regard to the rapid growth of our port, were abandoned, and real estate still rose considerably, and became an object of speculation. But the course of trade has proved that crisis to have been neither local nor individual, but that it extended over the whole trading world; and its effects were the more paralyzing, in proportion as mercantile confidence was shaken by it, and the more it became apparent that proper bounds and limits had been but too often exceeded in every branch of business, and this excess did not at first allow its own extent to be distinctly traced. A suspension of manufactures, and consequently a smaller demand for the raw material, and a depreciation of every species of merchandise, occasioned heavy losses, and universal embarrassment, which the political events of the year 1840 increased to an alarming degree. The Bank of Austria reduced its circulation, and the supplies from thence, which had been so freely yielded, ceased; and from this cause the individual embarrassments of our city were multiplied to such a degree, that many bankruptcies were announced, and a sudden depression succeeded to the previous spirit of activity and enterprise. Trieste suddenly saw herself deprived of her resources, her importations destroyed by foreign influence, and her activity paralyzed by the falling away of her national props. Such is the history of the last year, and a true exposition of the causes which brought about the existing state of affairs.

These circumstances are certainly of a serious character, and it would be a criminal levity voluntarily to overlook them. Trieste has lost in domestic wealth,—she has lost the enlivening principle of her foreign trade, and sees the means of her national support diminished and weakened on all sides. But her site and soil still remain,—still she is the principal seaport of a large, powerful, and wealthy monarchy. Still she lies in the heart of Europe, at the centre of the most important commerce, surrounded by the most wealthy and populous provinces in the civilized world. The elements of commerce are still existing, and though the motive power required for putting them in action has for a moment received a check, still we have only to awaken this power, by the resources which lie at our command, and by a well-directed and unwearied activity.

The crisis, which for the moment has paralyzed this power, did not originate with us. No local infirmities, no individual extravagances among us, have occasioned it. It is the work of the misguided spirit of the age. Trieste was obliged to yield to its impulse, that she might not be left behind. Its consequences distress not us alone, but the whole commercial world. But the overflowing stream will retire to its natural banks, and by these must the cheering and glorious prospects of our city be hereafter bounded.

From this universal conflict, a new form of commerce must arise. Its moral formation is not yet complete, but we now occupy a position, from which we may behold its continually progressive development. Although in past ages, the force of arms, superior intelligence, and the power of accumulated capital, were able to confine trade to certain localities, yet in more recent times, all these influences have lost their controlling weight. War seems foreign to the spirit of our times. The idea of

right has taken too extensive and universal hold, to admit longer the possibility of resorting to means for promoting the general good, which must have a directly contrary effect. The intercourse of nations, and their bonds of union, are too far advanced, to permit the intelligence of any one quarter to remain inaccessible to the others. The abuse of money has manifested its destructive effects so plainly, that we should learn to beware of the consequences of new excesses. Every state, every province, every individual, will enjoy in the commerce of the world that share, which political and local relations and individual activity prescribe.

The Austrian empire is one of the mightiest in its moral and physical power. It is in the vigor of its existence, neither shackled by hyperborean prejudices, nor embarrassed by oppressive debts, on the way to regular and rapid progress, blessed with the richest productions known to trade and industry, the surplus of which abundantly supplies the few necessaries required from abroad, inhabited by a population which, as a whole, yields to no other nation in intelligence, in activity, and in domestic economy. How then can it be possible, that her seaport should not take a large and increasing share in the commerce of the world?

But Trieste is not the seaport of the Austrian empire only, but also of the German confederacy, and, as such, appointed to carry on the trade of Germany and of the Customs Union at the south. The wealthy provinces of the Turkish empire, Egypt, the most populous countries of Asia, India, and even China and the Indian archipelago, are now brought nearer to us, by the incalulable results of steam navigation, than were the United States and even the northern parts of Europe, a few years since. Their productions, which still compose the principal elements of traffic, will, at no distant period, be introduced through this port into the south of Europe, and particularly into Germany, which, in this way, will find new outlets for the productions of her growing industry. For it is impossible, that in an age proverbial for economizing time, the shortest route from India to the south of Europe, by way of the Red sea, should long remain untrodden.

The greatest triumph commerce has ever celebrated, it has achieved in our time. The states of Germany, for centuries divided among themselves, and estranged by mistaken interests, have found a new point of union, a new nationality in trade. It was reserved for commerce to incline to one common object, a population of forty millions, which in all periods of history has been in advance of its contemporaries, in civilization and intelligence, and to awaken in it a feeling of entire devotion to the national struggle to reach this goal. Can any one, after this striking example, doubt the beneficent effects of trade? What may not Germany become, if, animated by such feelings, she applies herself to trade and productive industry, with her cautious perseverance opposed to the sanguine levity of the French, and the contemptuous selfishness of the English.

But the more decisive becomes the public voice in Germany, demanding an independent commerce, the more pecuniary and intellectual strength is devoted to this object, so much the more may we hope that this German trade will bring new resources to its only southern port. Should the period arrive, as has often been suggested in recent times, when Germany should require a German navy for the protection of her commerce, certainly no other German port could supply for it cheaper

and better materials, or offer it more favorable localities. This encouraging prospect for Trieste is raised to a degree of moral certainty, by the liberal determination of our gracious emperor to connect our coast with the heart of the empire, the heart of Germany, by means of railroads. If nothing remained to us of the innumerable benefits which a quarter of a century of peace has conferred, but steam navigation and railroads, yet these two great inventions of our age, would suffice to heal the wounds which war and the errors of peace have inflicted.

Steam navigation brings the distant nations of India within our reach; railroads connect us with the Danube, the Main, and even with the Rhine and the Elbe. If, then, railroads possess a deep interest for all, for us they must have a double interest. Trieste is one of the few ports destitute of the means of water communication with the interior, and we must confess that this great defect is the cause of her having taken only a fifth rank among the commercial cities of Europe. But this deficiency is remedied at once by the introduction of railroads. The notion, that railroads were little calculated for the transportation of merchandise, or that the expense of carriage would not be perceptibly diminished by them, has been disproved by the experience of recent times, as both the northern and Raab railroads have reduced their tariff of freight to 1¼ kreutzer per cwt. the German mile,* and will be induced to lower it still further by the spirit of competition in transportation. But this idea will be still more effectually refuted, from the moment when railroads shall belong to the state, and without regard to local interests, shall be subservient only to the promotion of the general good, and when free competition in transportation shall regulate its cost. If we consider, from the above mentioned points of view, the praiseworthy resolution of the Austrian government to construct railroads upon these principles, throughout the whole extent of the empire, we can no longer doubt that they will afford us all the benefits, which a large navigable river would confer, and that brilliant prospects for the future are connected with these liberal measures. We gave our views on this subject, in the pages of this journal, two years since, and our expectations have been almost literally fulfilled. May we not be deceived in those we have just expressed!

Having noticed the new commercial routes, and the means of rendering them available, it now becomes our duty to touch upon the former course of our trade. It is not to be denied, that our intercourse with the Levant has suffered. The wars in Syria, and the vacillating policy of Turkey, in her foreign and domestic relations, must have exercised a decided influence upon the trade of her provinces, and that this influence could have been no favorable one is evident. To these circumstances are to be added, the circumstances which have transpired at the Vienna exchange, upon which the principal commercial towns of the Levant are more dependent than would appear upon a superficial view of their mutual relations. But even this dependence will serve as a proof, that the trade of the Levant can never entirely be withdrawn from our shores. In recent times, merchants have resorted to the nearest and the most remote market-places, to the one for the purchase of foreign, and to the other for the sale of domestic wares. But experience teaches, that this principle is not always a sound one. It is not the last profit on a distant

* This is about equal to $5 per ton, the hundred miles, English.

voyage, but the competition in the market, the means of realization offered by it, and the variety of these means, that present to the merchant the surest advantage. The Levant will, accordingly, for a long time, require one or more intermediate depots for carrying on the traffic, and the Austrian port of Trieste will be able to maintain that position.

If we turn our eyes to America, we find in Brazil an independent state, which can supply our demand for unrefined sugar, and coffee, and is ready to receive in return our domestic productions. Our commercial relations with Brazil, the earliest into which we entered, are established upon a firm foundation. Our own shipping carries on a considerable share of this trade, and there is no ground to fear that we shall be compelled to relinquish this advantage.

Although our relations with the West Indies are less settled and extensive, still there is no obstacle to their improvement. Until within a few years, the Americans principally carried on this trade, but more recently some French houses undertook to monopolize the coffee trade with Cuba. This plan has failed, and when relations shall have been once established, it will not be difficult for us to obtain, in the commerce of the Antilles, a sufficient share to supply the necessities of our trade.

The United States are not unknown to our commerce. Dear-bought experience has taught us what we can safely purchase and sell in that market. If the pecuniary affairs of that remarkable country once more become settled, there is no apparent obstacle to the increase of our commercial intercourse with those states to any desirable extent. Although we can offer but a very limited market for rice and tobacco, yet Trieste may become the third cotton mart, ranking next Liverpool and Havre, and indeed is already so, to a certain degree.

We flatter ourselves we have already shown, that Trieste is calculated to concentrate, from all parts of the world, those varieties of merchandise which form the principal articles of commerce, that it therefore presents a wide field for trade, which is capable of continual extension. We have also shown, that it is not the restriction of the vital principle of commerce, nor the fault of her locality, which has brought about a crisis in her trade, but, that she was involved in an universal embarrassment, which affected all commercial places, but was more severely felt by us, because we are more dependent than others upon foreign influence, and because a new commercial town always possesses a smaller amount of accumulation, than an old one, and naturally suffers more from such shocks in trade. We have endeavored to prove, that the ground we have gained in trade is still capable of extension. But we must confess, that our trading capital is diminished, and in order to attain to this extension, an increase of capital is necessary, and if our positions are not false, we may express our hope, that this increase may be obtained, because every commodity (and money is a commodity with merchants) finds the most profitable market where it is the most scarce.

There is, however, capital enough for all our wants, but this capital is now invested in public funds, and we must not overlook the fact, that this mode of investment is the most safe and convenient that can be desired, when the object is to receive an income from it. Convenient, because the capital can at any moment be realized, and safe, because the interest will be punctually received. But dealing in public securities has still another aspect, namely, as an object of speculation, so far as these se-

curities are regarded as a commodity which promises gain. This profit, during the last twenty-five years, has been immense. For if we calculate the public debt of the five great powers at the moderate estimate of 10,000,000,000 guilders, if we assume that this debt, at the conclusion of the general peace, stood at an average of at most three-fourths its present value, (and in this we fall considerably behind the reality,) it follows, that this article has yielded a profit of 2,500,000,000 guilders. But can this state of things exist, when the average rate is 4 per cent, or must we not rather conclude that it has reached the maximum of its value, when we consider the far larger sums productive industry at present employs? We believe we are not deceived, when we assume that the future surplus of capitalists will henceforth be devoted to trade and productive industry.

We hope to find, in a careful examination of the annexed tables, proofs of the truth of the foregoing propositions, and we begin with the maritime imports and exports of our city. The amounts which embrace the total importation, presented in table No. 19, are affected not only by the fluctuations of the harvests, but also by those in the price of products, and therefore an arithmetical comparison of single years can afford no certain standard of the increase and diminution of trade. The sum total of the last ten years gives, in round numbers, the amount of 573,000,000 guilders, or a yearly average of 57,300,000.

The amount has stood at the above average twice during this period, namely, in the years 1832 and 1835. Four times it has fallen below it, namely, in the year 1833, by 10,000,000; in 1834, by 7,000,000; in 1837, by 4,000,000; and in 1841, by 8,000,000. Four times it has exceeded it. In the year 1836, by 20,000,000; in 1838, by 3,000,000; in 1839, by 6,000,000; and in 1840, by 3,000,000.

We find here two extremes—the year 1833, which fell short of the average by 10,000,000, and the year 1836, which exceeded it by 20,000,000. The diminished amount for the year 1833, is explained by the first symptoms of a commercial crisis in the United States, occasioned by the sub-treasury bill, together with the unsettled policy of Europe, the cholera, the insignificance of the corn trade, and the war of the viceroy of Egypt with the Ottoman Porte.

The decreased importation fell upon the few following articles: Table 1. coffee, 2,800,000; 3. breadstuffs, 1,600,000; 7. fruits of the Levant, 1,200,000; 14. and 15. sugar, 3,800,000; 16. sundries, 1,000,000; total, 10,400,000; and was distributed between the following countries,—(see the second table, Maritime Trade):—United States, 2,400,000; Brazil, 700,000; Turkey and Egypt, 2,500,000; England and dependencies, 3,000,000; States of the Church, 1,400,000; total, 10,000,000.

The year 1834, also, fell below the average to the amount of 8,000,000. This was occasioned by the failure of the crops in Brazil, and the consequently diminished importation of coffee and sugar, and a continued falling off in the corn trade. Table 1. coffee, (compared with 1832,) 3,200,000; 3. breadstuffs, 2,600,000; 14. and 15. sugar, 2,200,000; total, 8,000,000.

This reduction from the amount of 1832, was confined to the following countries: Brazil, 1,500,000; Turkey and Egypt, 2,700,000; States of the Church, 2,600,000; the Black sea, 1,000,000; total, 7,800,000.

The year 1835, the most prosperous for Trieste, again reached the average of 57,000,000 by an increased supply of all the raw materials required for manufactures, sugar, and above all, by the importation from

the Austrian coast, although coffee, grain, and (table 16.) sundries, fell below the amount of 1832.

The increase and diminution in different articles of trade, as compared with 1832, was balanced as follows:—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,	.....	2,500,000
" 3.—Breadstuffs,	.....	1,800,000
" 4.—Cotton,	4,000,000	.....
" 8.—Wool,	500,000	.....
" 9.—Metals,	300,000	.....
" 10.—Oil,	1,000,000	.....
" 13.—Dye-stuffs,	300,000	.....
14 & 15.—Sugar,	800,000	.....
" 16.—Sundries,	.....	4,000,000
" 18.—National products,	1,500,000	.....
Total,	8,400,000	8,300,000

We come now to the year 1836, whose trade so far surpassed that of all former years; a result brought about by numerous causes, and particularly by the high prices of merchandise. As a proof of our position, we give the prices of the five chief articles of our trade, viz:—*

	1832.	1836.		1832.	1836.
Coffee,	32¼	37	Cotton,	33	51
Sugar, raw,	14½	21 3-5	Oil,	23¼	25½
" refined,	21	25	Grain,	3½	4

To this increase conspired the very considerable grain importation, the operation of the Anglo-American confederacy, the rich crops in Brazil, and the superabundant yield of oil. The surplus of the 20,000,000 over the average falls upon the following articles, compared with the trade of 1832:—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,	1,200,000	.....
" 2.—Wax,	.....	200,000
" 3.—Breadstuffs,	.....	500,000
" 4.—Cotton,	9,000,000	.....
" 5.—Hides,	.....	200,000
" 6.—Drugs,	200,000	.....
" 7.—Dried fruits,	.....	300,000
" 8.—Wool,	600,000	.....
" 9.—Metals,	900,000	.....
" 10.—Oil,	3,900,000	.....
" 13.—Dyestuffs,	300,000	.....
14 & 15.—Sugar,	5,400,000	.....
" 16.—Sundries,	.....	3,300,000
" 18.—Domestic products,	3,000,000	.....
Total,	24,500,000	4,500,000

The increase and diminution are distributed as follows:—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,	4,800,000	.....
America—Hayti,	.....	300,000
" United States,	2,100,000	.....
Brazil,	5,400,000	.....

* This table cannot minutely specify the prices of those articles, at these two dates, but only the average price of a hundred weight; inasmuch as they, and especially sugar, coffee, and cotton, embrace the most various qualities; but 20 per cent, at least, of the sum total, must be ascribed to these increased prices.

	Above.	Below.
Belgium,	400,000	.....
France,	1,800,000	.....
Greece,	800,000	.....
England and dependencies,	.....	2,200,000
Holland,	1,000,000	.....
Turkey and Egypt,	5,600,000	.....
States of the Church,	.....	2,600,000
Portugal,	200,000	.....
Sicily and Naples,	3,000,000	.....
Total,	25,100,000	5,100,000

The following year, under the operation of the Anglo-American convulsion, and the depreciation of all merchandise, (for the illustration of which we give again the prices of the five chief articles, namely—

	1836.	1837.		1836.	1837.
Coffee,	37	23	Cotton,	51	41¼
Sugar, raw,	21 3-5	17½	Oil,	25½	22½
" refined,	25	22	Grain,	4	4½)

must naturally fall considerably short of the preceding year, and particularly on account of the partial failure of the olive crop. But when we take into consideration the price of merchandise, the variation from the average appears less important. Compared with 1832, the difference falls upon the following articles:—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,	.....	5,300,000
" 2.—Wax,	.....	300,000
" 3.—Breadstuffs,	760,000	.....
" 4.—Cotton,	2,900,000	.....
" 5.—Hides,	.....	300,000
" 8.—Wool,	100,000	.....
" 9.—Metals,	250,000	.....
" 10.—Oil,	.....	280,000
14 & 15.—Sugar,	.....	1,200,000
" 16.—Sundries,	.....	1,920,000
" 18.—Domestic products,	2,000,000	.....
6, 7, 11, & 13.—	.....	780,000
Total,	6,010,000	10,080,000

and is distributed as follows:—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,	3,370,000	.....
United States,	78,000	.....
France,	.....	700,000
Hayti,	.....	590,000
Brazil,	.....	1,670,000
Greece,	400,000	.....
Great Britain and dependencies,	.....	4,200,000
Holland and dependencies,	1,450,000	.....
Turkish empire,	920,000	.....
States of the Church,	.....	2,400,000
Portugal,	.....	750,000
Naples and Sicily,	960,000	.....
Sardinia,	.....	480,000
Black sea,	70,000	.....
Sweden, Tuscany, and Hanse Towns,	.....	450,000
Total,	7,248,000	11,240,000

The year 1838, (when the Anglo-American convulsion seemed to have

subsided, and it was hoped that its influence might be counteracted by new enterprises,) again exceeded the average; and the surplus fell upon the following articles, compared with the trade of 1832 :—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,	.....	3,000,000
" 3.—Breadstuffs,	.....	550,000
" 4.—Cotton,	3,000,000	.....
" 8.—Wool,	400,000	.....
" 9.—Metals,	200,000	.....
" 10.—Oil,	150,000	.....
14 & 15.—Sugar,	2,000,000	.....
" 16.—Sundries,	.....	1,200,000
" 18.—Domestic products,	2,000,000	.....
Total,	7,750,000	4,750,000

and was divided between the following countries :—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,	2,600,000	.....
United States,	.....	400,000
Brazil,	200,000	.....
France,	.....	290,000
Greece,	900,000	.....
England and dependencies,	.....	2,100,000
Holland and dependencies,	2,900,000	.....
Turkey,	2,900,000	.....
States of the Church,	.....	2,300,000
Black sea,	.....	1,900,000
Sardinia,	965,000	.....
Sicily,	760,000	.....
Spain and dependencies,	.....	700,000
Various countries,	.....	430,000
Total,	11,225,000	8,120,000

The two following years also exceeded the average; the first by 6,000,000, distributed as follows :—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,	.....	3,400,000
" 2.—Wax,	.....	200,000
" 3.—Breadstuffs,	1,000,000	.....
" 4.—Cotton,	1,500,000	.....
" 5.—Hides,	580,000	.....
" 7.—Southern fruits,	.....	300,000
" 8.—Wool,	470,000	.....
" 9.—Metals,	500,000	.....
" 10.—Oil,	.....	300,000
" 13.—Dyestuffs,	960,000	.....
14 & 15.—Sugar,	2,300,000	.....
" 18.—Domestic products,	3,500,000	.....
Total,	10,810,000	4,200,000

divided among the following countries :—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,	3,900,000	.....
United States,	.....	600,000
Hayti,	.....	300,000
Brazil,	2,300,000	.....
France,	700,000	.....
Greece,	1,000,000	.....
England and dependencies,	.....	2,000,000
Holland,	2,400,000	.....

	Above.	Below.
Turkey,	760,000	.....
States of the Church,	.....	1,800,000
Black sea,	.....	1,000,000
Sardinia,	360,000	.....
Sicily,	500,000	.....
Tuscany,	.....	200,000
Total,	11,920,000	5,900,000

The smaller surplus of 1840 was confined chiefly to cotton and domestic productions, but falls upon other kinds of merchandise as follows, compared with the trade of 1832 :—

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,	.....	1,200,000
" 2.—Wax,	.....	600,000
" 3.—Breadstuffs,	160,000	.....
" 4.—Cotton,	2,200,000	.....
" 5.—Hides,	250,000	.....
" 6.—Drugs,	540,000	.....
" 8.—Wool,	170,000	.....
" 9.—Metals,	100,000	.....
" 10.—Oil,	560,000	.....
" 13.—Dyestuffs,	650,000	.....
14 & 15.—Sugar,	800,000	.....
" 16.—Sundries,	.....	4,560,000
" 18.—Domestic products,	4,000,000	.....
Total,	9,430,000	6,360,000

and upon the following countries :—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,	5,180,000	.....
United States,	1,880,000	.....
Hayti,	.....	90,000
Brazil,	2,160,000	.....
France,	200,000	.....
Greece,	500,000	.....
England and dependencies,	.....	3,000,000
Holland,	1,560,000	.....
Turkey,	.....	360,000
States of the Church,	.....	1,870,000
Portugal,	.....	630,000
Black sea,	.....	1,800,000
Sardinia,	.....	280,000
Sicily,	600,000	.....
Spain,	.....	800,000
Tuscany and Sweden,	.....	300,000
Total,	12,080,000	9,130,000

The year 1841 requires no particular remark, as we have already noticed at length our local crisis ; which, however, was not confined to us, but extended both to England and the United States.

	Above.	Below.
Table 1.—Coffee,	.....	3,438,000
" 2.—Wax,	.....	488,000
" 3.—Breadstuffs,	.....	1,937,000
" 4.—Cotton,	.....	1,408,000
" 5.—Hides,	460,000	.....
" 6.—Drugs,	.....	546,000
" 7.—Dried fruits,	.....	1,050,000
" 8.—Wool,	10,000	.....
" 9.—Metals,	.....	125,000

	Above.	Below.
Table 10.—Oil,	630,000	.....
" 11.—Dried fish,	.....	194,000
" 12.—Brandy,	.....	84,000
" 13.—Manufactures,	240,000	.....
14 & 15.—Sugar,	.....	525,000
" 16.—Sundries,	.....	2,149,000
" 18.—Domestic products,	3,000,000	.....
Total,	4,340,000	11,944,000

From the following countries :—

	Above.	Below.
Austrian coast,	3,400,000	.....
United States,	.....	520,000
Hayti,	.....	520,000
Brazil,	160,000	.....
Hanse Towns,	.....	140,000
Belgium,	100,000	.....
France,	.....	400,000
Greece,	1,140,000	.....
England and dependencies,	.....	5,200,000
Holland,	1,840,000	.....
Turkey,	.....	1,800,000
States of the Church,	.....	1,700,000
Portugal,	.....	876,000
Black sea,	.....	2,400,000
Sicily and Naples,	260,000	.....
Spain,	.....	880,000
Sweden,	.....	110,000
Tuscany,	.....	230,000
Total,	6,900,000	14,776,000

If, from the detailed analysis of the last ten years, we proceed to the results in regard to importation in general, it will become apparent that, except the few fluctuations, the cause of which we have already shown, there has been a constant increase in it. The fact that the year 1832 reached the average of 57,000,000, must be ascribed to the large importation of coffee and grain, to the great supply of cotton from Egypt, and to the unusual influx of merchandise of every description direct from England; as the uncertain condition of Greece, Egypt, and the Levant, rendered direct shipments to those countries unadvisable. If we ascribe to these united causes the weight they deserve, the falling off in the next year will appear less important than the first view of the amounts would indicate; and from that period a gradual increase has been perceptible, especially if we take the years 1836 and 1837 together. The reasons that the past year has not shown a similar increase, and that the present also will show none, are to be found in our local crisis; but, that we have an outlet for even a higher amount than the average, is proved by the smallness of our stock at the close of the year. Although the average of the five years next preceding the year 1841 amounts to 62,000,000, and the amount in 1841 was but 60,000,000, we should not hence infer a decrease in our trade; for it is but a consequence of the existing check, concerning which we have already spoken at length.

Upon examining Table No. 2, exhibiting our commerce with different countries, we arrive at the following tabular division of our trade, namely: Coast of Austria; America—(*a*) United States, (*b*) Brazil; the Levant; Greece; Naples, Sicily, and the States of the Church; the Black sea;

the European ports of depot—(*a*) England, (*b*) France, (*c*) Holland; the ports of the Mediterranean.

Our trade with our own coast exhibits an uninterrupted increase, and has almost doubled during the last ten years; a cheering proof that our prosperity has not only a solid foundation, but is in full progress.

IMPORTS FROM THE AUSTRIAN COAST.

1832,.....	6,618,500	1837,.....	9,990,800
1833,.....	8,900,000	1838,.....	9,250,500
1834,.....	8,998,000	1839,.....	10,500,000
1835,.....	9,500,000	1840,.....	10,800,000
1836,.....	11,474,000	1841,.....	10,000,000

As a producing country, able to control the disposal of its own products, Brazil has a surpassing interest for us; since we are there not only upon an equal footing with all other nations, but may hope, in time, to pay in our own products, in part, for what we thence import. We derive from thence two of our principal articles, sugar and coffee. Our flag is largely employed in this commerce, and our relations are on a firm footing. Our imports from Brazil, during the whole ten years, with the exception of the usual fluctuations from abundant or defective crops, exhibit a constant increase, especially if we take the years 1836 and 1837 together. Nothing leads us to expect that this portion of our trade, which is capable of farther gradual extension, will experience any check.

IMPORTS FROM BRAZIL.

1832,.....	6,839,000	1837,.....	5,165,000
1833,.....	6,155,000	1838,.....	7,000,000
1834,.....	5,326,000	1839,.....	9,135,000
1835,.....	6,700,000	1840,.....	9,000,000
1836,.....	12,134,500	1841,.....	7,000,000

The annexed table shows a less considerable variation in our trade with the United States than might be expected from our introductory observations. This is explained by the fact that the greater part of American ships, which brought colonial merchandise, came from intermediate ports; the principal article we receive direct from the United States being cotton. With the exception of the year 1836, on account of the high price of cotton, and the year 1840, on account of the unusual quantity which was ordered by reason of its cheapness, the amount of the importation has been between three and four millions; but this must increase considerably, as the demand for cotton is larger, and importations from intermediate depots will cease when once more regularity and confidence in the American trade shall arise from the existing chaos. Our exportation thither is the most considerable which we have to any part of America; and, when confidence and system shall be once more restored, is capable of very great increase.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

1832,.....	3,422,300	1837,.....	3,700,000
1833,.....	1,246,000	1838,.....	3,000,000
1834,.....	3,563,000	1839,.....	3,000,000
1835,.....	4,000,000	1840,.....	5,500,000
1836,.....	5,705,500	1841,.....	3,100,000

The trade with the Levant, or, to speak more properly, with the Turkish empire, is more exposed than any other to the fluctuations arising from more or less abundant harvests. It cannot, therefore, be expected

that any fixed regularity should be established in that branch of trade. If we regard the general result, it cannot be considered unfavorable; for, making allowance for the above views, the greater or less exports of grain from the mouths of the Danube, and the political condition of these countries, (which, however, is now permanently settled, and will cease to exert a baneful influence,) it cannot be regarded as having, on the whole, diminished.

IMPORTS FROM EGYPT AND OTHER PORTS.

1832,.....	4,048,000	5,908,100	1837,.....	3,033,700	7,841,500
1833,.....	3,698,000	3,500,000	1838,.....	4,500,000	8,400,000
1834,.....	2,772,000	4,472,600	1839,.....	2,600,000	8,115,000
1835,.....	3,000,000	5,628,700	1840,.....	2,500,000	7,095,000
1836,.....	5,904,000	9,711,100	1841,.....	2,300,000	5,790,000

Our trade with Greece has been constantly increasing; and, in the course of the last year, has reached a higher amount than at any previous period.

IMPORTS FROM GREECE.

1832,.....	924,200	1837,.....	1,324,800
1833,.....	1,212,000	1838,.....	1,800,000
1834,.....	1,773,600	1839,.....	2,000,000
1835,.....	1,200,600	1840,.....	1,430,000
1836,.....	1,728,700	1841,.....	2,060,000

Our commerce with the States of the Church amounted, in the year 1832, to an unusually large sum. This is explained by the very considerable exportation of grain from the March of Ancona, which extended into a part of the next year. Laying aside these two years, the succeeding eight years offer no great variation; and, upon the whole, the imports show a greater amount, and, of course, indicate no decline of trade.

IMPORTS FROM THE STATES OF THE CHURCH.

1832,.....	3,875,600	1837,.....	1,500,000
1833,.....	2,500,000	1838,.....	1,600,000
1834,.....	1,220,500	1839,.....	2,000,000
1835,.....	2,000,000	1840,.....	2,000,000
1836,.....	1,268,600	1841,.....	2,200,000

The imports from Naples and Sicily also continue steadily to increase, without any considerable variation, if we except the abundant olive harvest of 1836.

IMPORTS FROM NAPLES AND SICILY.

1832,.....	3,944,500	1837,.....	4,900,000
1833,.....	3,821,000	1838,.....	4,700,000
1834,.....	3,628,000	1839,.....	4,500,000
1835,.....	4,844,800	1840,.....	4,550,000
1836,.....	6,957,200	1841,.....	4,200,000

England ranks first among the European states engaged in the intermediate trade; but, in proportion as we emancipate ourselves from this intervention, our imports will be reduced, especially since refined sugar is no longer an article of import. Were it not for an occasional importation of cotton from the English markets, engines, and railroad iron, this branch of our trade would have fallen off still more; and we must be prepared for a still farther decline. Among the dependencies of England, Malta and the Ionian isles are of some importance to us, and our traffic with them is subject to very little variation. With the Antilles, we have scarcely any intercourse.

IMPORTS FROM ENGLAND.

Years.	Direct.	Dependencies.	Years.	Direct.	Dependencies.
1832,.....	9,523,300	963,000	1837,.....	5,800,000	430,000
1833,.....	6,700,000	670,000	1838,.....	7,400,000	956,000
1834,.....	9,717,800	1,097,300	1839,.....	8,000,000	510,000
1835,.....	7,000,000	1,128,000	1840,.....	6,645,000	760,000
1836,.....	7,416,400	775,600	1841,.....	4,500,000	725,000

In the early part of the period we have been considering, large quantities of refined sugar, and afterwards much colonial merchandise and cotton, were imported from France, chiefly from the port of Marseilles; but this is to be regarded as an occasional trade, which will be of but short continuance.

IMPORTS FROM FRANCE.

1832,.....	2,290,500	1837,.....	1,583,000
1833,.....	1,600,000	1838,.....	2,000,000
1834,.....	1,275,000	1839,.....	3,000,000
1835,.....	2,600,000	1840,.....	2,500,000
1836,.....	4,122,200	1841,.....	1,900,000

The importation from Holland consists almost exclusively in refined sugar, and will sustain itself so long as the present sugar laws of that state remain in force. It has increased almost tenfold since 1834. We can only occasionally import from Leghorn and Genoa. That trade is of but minor importance.

IMPORTS FROM HOLLAND AND DEPENDENCIES.

1832,.....	56,000	1837,.....	1,511,000
1833,.....	280,000	1838,.....	2,998,000
1834,.....	435,400	1839,.....	2,500,000
1835,.....	589,600	1840,.....	1,620,000
1836,.....	1,125,200	1841,.....	1,900,000

Our exportation forms the weak point of our commerce. One-half of this goes to our own ports—that is, to the ports on the Austrian coast; but from some of these, as Venice, Chiozza, and Ponte Santa Maria Maddalena, a great portion is sent to Southern Germany and Switzerland. Hence, there are fluctuations in the amount of this trade, in proportion to the greater or less demand, in those markets, for Brazil coffee and Egyptian cotton. This depends upon our prices; and when they are so high that we are obliged to import cotton from Marseilles and Liverpool, and coffee from Holland, Bordeaux, and Marseilles, this branch of our trade must be reduced.

EXPORTS FROM THE AUSTRIAN COAST.

1832,.....	22,640,400	1837,.....	22,500,000
1833,.....	19,968,300	1838,.....	22,200,000
1834,.....	19,654,300	1839,.....	20,700,000
1835,.....	19,500,000	1840,.....	18,690,000
1836,.....	25,230,000	1841,.....	14,400,000

Our exports to the Levant and Egypt have, within certain limits, remained uniform; but a branch of business which is not gaining ground, is losing. Still, we may indulge the hope that it will increase, when the effects of their long-continued civil disturbances shall be less apparent; when Egypt shall return to the cultivation of her rich soil, and enjoy the blessing of a more liberal trade; when Syria shall be pacified; and, above all, when the remaining provinces of the Grand Seignior possess a better pecuniary system.

EXPORTS FROM EGYPT AND TURKEY.

Years.	Egypt.	Turkey.	Years.	Egypt.	Turkey.
1832,.....	1,521,300	5,594,300	1837,.....	1,130,000	5,238,200
1833,.....	1,500,000	4,300,000	1838,.....	1,110,200	4,416,400
1834,.....	1,655,800	4,638,800	1839,.....	800,000	4,000,000
1835,.....	930,000	6,504,200	1840,.....	565,000	4,725,000
1836,.....	1,717,000	8,000,000	1841,.....	1,280,000	5,092,000

Greece is slowly advancing towards a European civilization, and we may confidently hope that our exports thither will increase in proportion to this advance in civilization, as has already been experienced with regard to the past.

EXPORTS FROM GREECE.

1832,.....	829,000	1837,.....	1,200,000
1833,.....	1,800,000	1838,.....	1,511,100
1834,.....	1,172,300	1839,.....	3,000,000
1835,.....	1,408,600	1840,.....	1,910,000
1836,.....	1,331,200	1841,.....	2,000,000

The amount of our exports to the States of the Church, Naples, and Sicily, is rather stationary than decreasing.

EXPORTS FROM THE STATES OF THE CHURCH, SICILY, AND NAPLES.

Years.	States of the Church.	Sicily and Naples.	Years.	States of the Church.	Sicily and Naples.
1832,.....	4,078,000	2,161,600	1837,.....	4,300,000	1,122,300
1833,.....	4,700,000	1,500,000	1838,.....	3,500,000	1,703,400
1834,.....	5,387,000	1,518,500	1839,.....	3,300,000	1,500,000
1835,.....	6,500,000	2,000,000	1840,.....	3,670,000	2,250,000
1836,.....	4,495,500	1,297,300	1841,.....	4,200,000	2,020,000

Our exports to England fluctuate, according to the progress of manufactures and the corn trade, but must be reckoned among the most important branches of our commerce.

EXPORTS FROM ENGLAND AND DEPENDENCIES.

Years.	England.	Depend.	Years.	England.	Depend.
1832,.....	1,192,000	1,075,400	1837,.....	3,252,000	1,380,000
1833,.....	2,200,000	703,000	1838,.....	2,952,000	593,400
1834,.....	2,782,300	1,072,400	1839,.....	8,060,000	678,000
1835,.....	2,784,500	863,200	1840,.....	3,500,000	980,000
1836,.....	4,021,600	1,382,600	1841,.....	2,700,000	760,000

We have already spoken of our exports to Brazil and the United States. With both, they will increase in importance when we shall be better informed concerning the wants of those countries, which we can advantageously supply.

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES AND BRAZIL.

Years.	U. States.	Brazil.	Years.	U. States.	Brazil.
1832,.....	872,500	194,000	1837,.....	1,132,600	345,500
1833,.....	525,000	211,000	1838,.....	620,000	273,000
1834, ...	617,200	337,300	1839,.....	1,002,000	300,000
1835,.....	1,617,700	152,200	1840,.....	710,000	450,000
1836,.....	1,730,200	234,700	1841,.....	785,000	250,000

In fine, if we contemplate the exports of domestic productions, we shall perceive, almost without exception, a very considerable increase. Table 1. paper; 2. breadstuffs; 3. metallic wares; 5. flour; 13. domestic manufactures, have doubled. All other merchandise has increased considerably, with the single exception of crockery, which is excluded by the cheapness of the English ware.

What a different form may not our exportation assume, when once the

long-cherished wish of bringing Hungary nearer to our shores shall be realized. Hungary is, in fact, the most abundantly productive country of Europe—we repeat, the most abundantly productive land of Europe; for what other can compete with it, in variety and value of products, all of a character to take a place in general commerce? when, at length, not only shall its means of transport be brought to a reasonably convenient and uniform condition; but, above all, the loss of time, to which this trade is at present exposed, and which deters all attempts to establish commercial relations, shall be saved. But that these two obstacles can be removed, and that without great difficulty, has been abundantly proved by careful surveys, which have been undertaken with reference to this important object. From the moment when railroads, and improvement of the rivers, shall put it in our power to make a market for the rich harvests of Hungary, that country is sure to find a regular outlet for them. Then Trieste will no longer be limited to carrying on the corn trade of her near and distant neighbors, but will become a corn market of the first rank. Then our German countrymen will no longer need to seek, beneath the glowing sky of the West Indies and Brazil, or even in New Zealand and the Chatham islands, a resting-place, which separates them forever from their country and friends; but they will be able to reap a rich reward for their industry nearer home, in the fertile fields of Hungary, the Bannat, and the picturesque and beautiful vales of Servia.

Much has been said concerning the decline of our trade in the fruits of the south, the greater portion of them being now transported direct from the islands and Smyrna to the north of Europe; but, admitting this, it is to be observed that, in this trade, recourse is had to the intervention of our commercial houses, and that our exports to the northern ports, at least during the last ten years, have not diminished, but increased; as appears from the following table:—

NORTHERN TRADE.

Exportation to	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.
Hanse Towns,	572,500	.....	488,300	764,600	460,000
Belgium,	.....	.....	120,700	90,700	114,000
Denmark,	20,700	50,800	.....	39,400	70,600
Holland,	309,300	330,000	289,600	337,600	364,700
Prussia,	214,000	440,000	125,400	130,000	189,700
Russia on the Baltic,	94,200	.....	46,700	120,000	86,000
Total,	1,210,700	820,800	1,070,700	1,482,300	1,285,000

NORTHERN TRADE—Continued.

Exportation to	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Hanse Towns,	533,300	440,000	500,000	430,000	500,000
Belgium,	92,800	.....	150,000	130,000	180,000
Denmark,	40,000	25,900	40,000	50,000	30,000
Holland,	300,000	670,000	500,000	380,000	390,000
Prussia,	.....	95,000	200,000	200,000	230,000
Russia on the Baltic,	154,700	85,000	20,000	90,000	.....
Total,	1,120,800	1,315,900	1,410,000	1,280,000	1,330,000

Similar results are shown by the oil trade, which, according to Table 10, has likewise rather increased than diminished; as the year 1836 (the abundant harvest of which forms an exception to the general rule) will not furnish us a standard.

We refer our readers, in fine, to the commercial view of the free port

of Trieste, in the year 1841, appended to No. 18, in which they will find, in minute detail, farther accurate information respecting our trade, which supplies so many numerical proofs in support of our propositions. We have extracted from it the exportation, both by land and sea, from Trieste to other Austrian ports, of the four chief articles of trade, namely: coffee, sugar, cotton, and oil, so far as means of accurate information exist:—

EXPORTATION OF COFFEE, SUGAR, WOOL, AND OIL, TO AUSTRIAN PORTS—(by quintals.)

Year.	By land.	By sea.	Total.	Year.	By land.	By sea.	Total.
			Coffee.				
1835,	58,200	44,950	163,150	1839,	75,000	35,300	128,300
1836,	70,700	58,530	129,230	1840,	80,000	59,000	139,000
1837,	68,840	59,215	128,055	1841,	75,753	52,000	127,753
1838,	72,310	36,500	108,810				
			Oil.				
1835,	56,760	67,320	124,080	1839,	135,000	20,000	155,000
1836,	109,300	77,850	187,150	1840,	110,000	40,000	150,000
1837,	110,490	35,307	145,797	1841,	85,000	63,000	148,000
1838,	109,000	22,600	131,600				
			Wool.				
1835,	115,670	27,950	143,620	1839,	90,552	58,984	149,536
1836,	146,394	86,188	232,582	1840,	110,898	70,786	181,684
1837,	113,040	104,521	217,561	1841,	120,000	67,295	187,295
1838,	115,110	96,404	211,514				
			Sugar.				
1835,	230,600	111,720	342,320	1839,	270,000	151,000	421,000
1836,	233,300	120,970	354,270	1840,	260,000	157,000	417,000
1837,	267,375	140,530	407,905	1841,	231,887	177,850	408,737
1838,	231,457	143,100	374,557				

These numbers exhibit no decline, but rather a gradual increase in our trade; and we close our view of the commerce of Trieste with the following tables:—

MARITIME TRADE OF THE PORT OF TRIESTE, FROM 1832 TO 1841, INCLUSIVE.

Imports.

Countries whence.	1832. Vessels. Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.	1841. Vessels. Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.
Austrian coasts,	40	4,300	6,618,500	90	6,465	10,000,000
United States,	35	.....	3,622,300	37	.....	3,100,000
St. Domingo,	6	.....	589,800	2	.....	70,000
Brazil,	86	.....	6,839,000	87	.....	7,000,000
Argentine Republic,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Republic of Colombia,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Coasts of the Pacific,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Hanover,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Hanse Towns,	9	.....	290,600	5	.....	150,000
Belgium,	...	.....	.....	5	.....	100,000
Denmark,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
France,	50	.....	2,290,500	53	.....	1,900,000
Algiers,	...	.....	.....	5	.....	.....
Greece,	76	.....	924,900	124	.....	906,000
Great Britain,	87	.....	9,523,300	41	.....	4,500,000
Gibraltar and Malta,	14	.....	345,200	15	.....	350,000
Antilles,	...	.....	.....	1	.....	25,000
Ionian islands,	46	.....	561,100	31	.....	350,000
Holland in Europe,	3	.....	56,000	34	.....	1,900,000
East India possessions,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....

VESSELS ARRIVING AT, AND GOODS IMPORTED INTO, TRIESTE—Continued.

Countries whence.	1832. Vessels. Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.	1841. Vessels. Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.
Ionian islands,	46	.....	561,100	31	.....	350,000
Holland in Europe,	3	.....	56,000	34	.....	1,900,000
East India possessions,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Ottoman empire—Egypt,	76	.....	4,048,500	62	.....	2,300,000
" Black Sea,	9	.....	280,000	38	.....	650,000
" Other ports,	209	.....	5,628,100	211	.....	5,140,000
Papal States,	14	560	3,875,600	24	467	2,200,000
Portugal,	14	.....	1,916,800	2	.....	140,000
Cape de Verd islands,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Prussia,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Russia—Baltic Sea,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
" Black Sea,	134	.....	3,051,500	26	.....	630,000
Sardinia,	21	.....	535,800	16	.....	500,000
Sicily,	86	280	3,944,500	89	232	4,200,000
Spain in Europe,	5	.....	115,400	6	.....	150,000
" America,	18	.....	2,042,800	19	.....	1,195,000
" India,	1	.....	69,400	...	.....	.....
Sweden and Norway,	17	.....	250,500	6	.....	140,000
Tuscany,	17	.....	480,600	9	.....	250,000
Total,	1,073	5,140	57,000,000	1,038	7,164	49,000,000
FLAGS.						
Austrian,	513	4,552	25,399,000	521	6,561	23,700,000
United States,	45	.....	5,292,000	45	.....	3,800,000
Brazilian,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Hanoverian,	7	.....	127,300	3	.....	160,000
Hanse,	1	.....	12,500	13	.....	550,000
Belgian,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Danish,	14	.....	655,600	21	.....	1,300,000
French,	4	.....	290,600	16	.....	400,000
Greek,	93	.....	1,591,100	151	.....	3,000,000
English,	165	.....	13,823,000	58	.....	3,800,000
Ionian,	14	.....	170,400	19	.....	200,000
Dutch,	4	.....	198,800	26	.....	1,200,000
Turkish,	3	.....	11,500	7	.....	60,000
Papal,	41	375	2,961,800	26	392	2,700,000
Portuguese,	...	.....	.....	1	.....	60,000
Prussian,	...	.....	.....	2	.....	300,000
Russian,	28	.....	84,800	17	.....	1,150,000
Sardinian,	38	.....	1,274,500	16	.....	600,000
Sicilian,	77	213	4,192,500	56	211	3,850,000
Spanish,	4	.....	87,100	11	.....	530,000
Swedish and Norwegian,	19	.....	779,300	23	.....	1,500,000
Tuscan,	3	.....	48,200	6	.....	140,000
Total,	1,073	5,140	57,000,000	1,038	7,164	49,000,000

DEPARTURES OF VESSELS, AND GOODS EXPORTED FROM TRIESTE.

The following table shows the number of square-rigged and coastwise vessels departing from the port of Trieste, and the value of merchandise exported in the same, for 1832 and 1841 :—

Destination.	1832. Vessels. Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.	1841. Vessels. Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.
Austrian coasts,	77	4,931	22,640,400	141	7,256	14,400,000
United States,	23	.....	872,500	21	.....	785,000
St. Domingo,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....

DEPARTURES OF VESSELS, AND GOODS EXPORTED FROM TRIESTE—Continued.

Destination.	1832. Vessels. Sq. rig.	Coast's.	Val. of goods.	1841. Vessels. Sq. rig	Coast's.	Val. of goods.
Brazil,	15	.....	194,000	12	.....	250,000
Argentine Republic,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Republic of Colombia,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Coasts of the Pacific,	...	.....	.....	2	.....	80,000
Hanover,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Hanse Towns,	21	.....	572,500	16	.....	500,000
Belgium,	...	.....	.....	8	.....	180,000
Denmark,	1	.....	20,700	1	.....	30,000
France,	77	.....	1,333,700	58	.....	1,300,000
Algiers,	...	.....	.....	39	.....	300,000
Greece,	124	.....	829,000	165	.....	2,000,000
Great Britain,	38	.....	1,192,000	67	.....	2,700,000
Gibraltar and Malta,	36	.....	386,000	15	.....	200,000
Antilles,	...	.....	.....	1	.....	.....
Ionian islands,	116	.....	689,400	65	.....	560,000
Holland in Europe,	14	.....	309,300	9	.....	390,000
East India possessions,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Ottoman empire—Egypt,	63	.....	1,521,300	39	.....	1,280,000
" Black sea,	4	.....	21,500	6	.....	87,000
" Other ports,	230	.....	5,572,800	167	.....	5,005,000
Papal States,	35	544	4,078,000	47	416	4,200,000
Portugal,	10	.....	100,800	3	.....	113,000
Cape de Verd islands,	...	.....	.....	3	.....	.....
Prussia,	9	.....	214,000	8	.....	230,000
Russia—Baltic sea,	3	.....	94,200	...	.....	.....
" Black sea,	20	.....	400,000	17	.....	200,000
Sardinia,	44	.....	468,400	9	.....	260,000
Sicily,	90	206	2,161,600	90	328	2,020,000
Spain in Europe,	11	.....	38,300	17	.....	190,000
" America,	3	.....	7,000	2	.....	5,000
" India,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Sweden and Norway,	1	.....	400	1	.....	21,000
Tuscany,	14	.....	282,200	6	.....	214,000
Total,	1,079	5,681	44,000,000	1,035	8,000	37,500,000
FLAGS.						
Austrian,	529	5,099	33,674,500	507	7,381	25,000,000
United States,	44	.....	700,000	45	.....	750,000
Brazilian,	...	.....	.....	...	.....	.....
Hanoverian,	6	.....	138,000	3	.....	20,000
Hanse,	1	.....	32,000	14	.....	270,000
Belgian,	...	.....	.....	1	.....	32,000
Danish,	12	.....	223,000	22	.....	350,000
French,	4	.....	59,000	17	.....	565,000
Greek,	91	.....	916,500	146	.....	1,450,000
English,	165	.....	2,264,000	67	.....	1,600,000
Ionian,	14	.....	74,200	19	.....	200,000
Dutch,	4	.....	70,300	26	.....	273,000
Turkish,	3	.....	4,100	8	.....	35,000
Papal,	42	373	2,500,000	25	395	3,500,000
Portuguese,	...	.....	.....	1	.....	25,000
Prussian,	...	.....	.....	1	.....	.....
Russian,	24	.....	380,300	16	.....	190,000
Sardinian,	42	.....	394,400	17	.....	250,000
Sicilian,	77	209	2,300,000	55	224	2,000,000
Spanish,	3	.....	48,300	12	.....	215,000
Swedish and Norwegian,	15	.....	169,700	27	.....	650,000
Tuscan,	3	.....	51,700	6	.....	125,000
Total,	1,079	5,681	44,000,000	1,035	8,000	37,500,000

MARITIME COMMERCE OF THE PORT OF TRIESTE, FROM 1831 to 1842, INCLUSIVE.

Imports of Trieste, from 1832 *to* 1841.

The Tables I. to XVI. contain foreign products in detail. Table XVII., sum total of do. Table XVIII., domestic products. Table XIX., grand total.

	TABLE I.—Coffee.		TABLE II.—Breadstuffs.		TABLE III.—Breadstuffs & Oil-seeds.	
Years.	Centner,* or cwt.	Value in florins.†	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Bushels.	Value in florins.
1832,	256,000	8,348,000	14,444	1,100,000	1,207,000	4,537,000
1833,	158,000	5,530,000	11,697	808,790	900,500	2,902,500
1834,	161,000	5,152,000	6,732	441,000	550,000	1,900,000
1835,	172,500	5,800,000	11,711	1,006,000	700,000	2,700,000
1836,	260,000	9,620,000	11,000	880,000	1,004,000	4,016,000
1837,	132,500	3,047,500	8,581	772,300	1,350,000	5,300,000
1838,	213,500	5,444,250	9,116	861,000	927,900	4,175,550
1839,	188,500	4,901,000	11,000	980,000	1,174,000	5,545,000
1840,	274,600	7,139,600	5,175	477,750	1,150,600	4,700,000
1841,	184,550	4,910,000	6,775	612,600	660,000	2,600,000

	TABLE IV.—Cotton.		TABLE V.—Hides.		TABLE VI.—Drugs.	
Years.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	186,800	6,170,400	29,490	1,403,800	55,551	1,536,000
1833,	123,380	6,199,600	59,212	2,539,500	36,060	1,601,795
1834,	127,485	6,007,700	93,473	3,790,800	60,962	1,674,670
1835,	187,354	10,084,800	38,071	1,601,350	56,902	1,438,600
1836,	294,580	15,159,000	31,107	1,208,650	49,101	1,712,000
1837,	217,580	9,075,000	27,850	1,102,600	51,910	1,352,000
1838,	241,274	8,853,500	46,810	1,587,360	54,545	1,291,000
1839,	159,258	7,640,000	46,000	1,980,200	45,875	1,451,750
1840,	249,600	8,381,000	38,625	1,660,000	66,000	2,080,000
1841,	141,310	4,762,500	48,700	1,867,000	30,529	990,830

	TABLE VII.—Dried Fruits.		TABLE VIII.—Wool & Hair.		TABLE IX.—Metals & Min.	
Years.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	265,000	2,650,000	16,000	490,000	84,000	688,000
1833,	123,500	1,482,000	14,000	440,000	60,000	606,000
1834,	168,325	2,060,200	20,900	606,500	100,000	1,040,000
1835,	216,000	2,786,000	23,120	986,090	90,600	981,500
1836,	170,463	2,367,300	31,560	1,112,800	115,400	1,590,000
1837,	151,800	2,412,500	17,650	606,750	78,700	952,000
1838,	202,000	2,700,000	23,840	900,390	77,710	897,100
1839,	135,700	1,956,000	24,170	868,500	111,740	1,110,500
1840,	191,000	2,674,300	18,224	659,800	92,900	792,700
1841,	181,360	1,600,000	15,000	500,080	68,320	565,000

	TABLE X.—Oil of Olives.		TABLE XI.—Salt and dried Fish.		TABLE XII.—Spirits.	
Years.	Orne.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.	Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	153,000	3,543,700	39,330	394,200	19,215	261,000
1833,	215,000	4,421,000	37,200	313,500	29,380	442,800
1834,	189,000	4,500,000	33,700	294,000	25,000	334,000
1835,	172,500	4,490,000	51,600	437,000	24,337	322,600
1836,	293,000	7,433,000	51,800	374,700	17,767	360,280
1837,	142,800	3,265,000	30,300	222,900	24,270	527,000
1838,	164,000	3,700,000	32,270	333,270	23,200	427,800
1839,	130,000	3,200,000	28,750	300,000	30,957	540,000
1840,	153,500	4,100,000	22,160	234,000	24,444	320,200
1841,	145,500	4,170,000	20,000	200,700	15,000	177,000

* The Austrian centner, or one hundred weight, is equal to 123½ lbs. avoirdupois.

† The florin is worth 48½ cents United States currency, and 60 kreutzers make one florin.

Years.	Table XIII.—Dye-stuffs. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table XIV.—Raw Sugar. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table XV.—Refined Sugar. Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	64,000	1,004,000	391,000	5,575,000	109,000	2,280,000
1833,	58,000	980,000	224,000	2,949,400	51,000	1,085,600
1834,	65,000	900,000	293,000	4,476,200	57,000	1,141,800
1835,	53,800	1,325,000	360,100	7,851,000	39,900	950,000
1836,	44,000	1,300,000	500,000	10,802,000	100,000	2,500,000
1837,	27,200	816,000	285,000	5,000,000	75,000	1,650,000
1838,	45,000	1,100,000	402,650	7,000,000	146,000	3,000,000
1839,	73,500	1,967,000	473,500	8,200,000	106,000	2,000,000
1840,	82,000	1,650,000	426,050	7,040,000	80,000	1,630,000
1841.	69,000	1,240,000	338,400	4,627,500	154,950	2,703,000

The following table exhibits the value of sundries, not enumerated in the above tables; the total value of foreign products, and the total value of domestic products; and the grand total value of all importations into Trieste in each year, from 1832 to 1841, inclusive:—

Years.	Table XVI. Sundries. *Value in florins.*	Table XVII. Tot. For. Products. *Value in florins.*	Table XVIII. Tot. Dom. Products. *Value in florins.*	Table XIX. Grand total. *Value in florins.*
1832,.....	10,822,800	51,000,000	6,000,000	57,000,000
1833,.....	9,797,515	42,100,000	4,900,000	47,000,000
1834,.....	9,681,130	44,000,000	6,000,000	50,000,000
1835,.....	6,740,060	49,500,000	7,500,000	57,000,000
1836,.....	7,564,270	68,000,000	9,000,000	77,000,000
1837,.....	8,898,450	45,000,000	8,000,000	53,000,000
1838,.....	9,678,280	51,949,500	8,050,500	60,000,000
1839,.....	10,860,050	53,500,000	9,500,000	63,000,000
1840,.....	6,420,650	50,000,000	10,000,000	60,000,000
1841,.....	8,673,790	40,000,000	9,000,000	49,000,000

Note.—These tables contain only foreign, and such domestic products as are imported by sea.

Explanations.—Table VI. Drugs embrace cocoa, cinnamon, cassia, gums, pepper, allspice, tea, and ginger. Table XIII.—Dyestuffs—embraces madder, sulflower, galls, Persian berries, indigo, and dye-woods.

Exports of Trieste, from 1832 *to* 1841.

The Tables I. to XVI. contain domestic products in detail. Table XVII. total of do. Table XVIII. total foreign products. Table XIX. grand total.

Years.	Table I.—Paper. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table II.—Breadstuffs & Oil-seeds. Bush.	Value in florins.	Table III.—Metal. manf. Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	13,180	195,000	50,000	158,900	3,200	321,500
1833,	16,210	240,000	60,000	200,100	3,500	360,200
1834,	20,350	310,500	58,000	182,000	4,100	405,900
1835,	20,360	330,000	62,000	190,000	4,900	500,000
1836,	27,050	401,400	70,000	227,500	6,000	589,000
1837,	20,110	300,100	65,000	198,700	5,200	550,000
1838,	26,140	390,350	100,000	350,000	4,800	500,000
1839,	25,000	400,740	81,000	286,000	5,300	520,000
1840,	36,700	501,280	75,000	230,000	6,000	590,000
1841,	42,500	537,500	80,000	300,000	6,700	600,000

Years.	Table IV.—Drugs. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table V.—Flour. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table VI.—Wool. Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	11,540	240,800	42,000	280,000	8,000	200,000
1833,	10,100	215,000	45,000	300,000	7,500	165,000
1834,	14,300	250,600	44,000	300,300	10,000	228,000
1835,	22,155	473,000	38,000	260,000	15,100	362,400
1836,	18,900	366,500	76,000	540,000	23,855	600,000
1837,	15,000	325,000	80,000	560,000	14,783	360,000
1838,	20,530	364,200	90,000	630,000	11,000	255,000
1839,	16,100	321,000	95,000	660,000	11,251	300,000
1840,	15,700	328,200	72,500	500,000	9,090	225,000
1841,	16,500	322,300	85,000	582,000	6,480	174,300

Years.	Table VII.—Lumber. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table VIII.—Metals and Minerals. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table IX.—Tallow Candles and Soap. Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	300,000	420,000	85,000	1,200,000	42,000	670,000
1833,	290,000	406,000	82,000	1,000,000	38,700	621,000
1834,	320,000	448,000	88,000	1,350,000	40,100	830,000
1835,	330,000	462,000	110,000	1,800,000	43,000	860,100
1836,	350,000	490,000	117,500	2,038,000	48,000	970,350
1837,	380,000	532,500	90,000	1,530,000	36,000	720,200
1838,	400,000	560,000	94,335	1,350,000	40,500	801,800
1839,	505,000	699,820	101,000	1,408,000	42,300	840,330
1840,	500,000	700,000	112,515	1,810,000	43,000	640,800
1841,	570,000	800,000	115,000	1,735,000	48,600	633,250

Years.	Table X.—Rags. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table XI.—Tobacco. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table XII.—Crockery. Crates.	Value in florins.
1832,	40,000	393,000	45,000	650,000	10,000	50,000
1833,	50,000	495,100	38,000	560,000	10,200	51,000
1834,	40,000	410,000	43,800	640,000	9,800	48,000
1835,	100,000	973,000	27,700	420,000	9,700	48,500
1836,	60,000	596,000	40,000	605,000	8,000	40,000
1837,	110,000	1,097,000	24,000	368,900	7,000	35,000
1838,	99,000	964,000	48,000	720,000	6,300	33,600
1839,	100,000	977,000	67,000	985,500	5,400	29,700
1840,	66,500	660,000	55,000	820,000	4,300	23,865
1841,	50,000	473,000	69,100	1,105,600	4,000	22,200

Years.	Table XIII.—Thread and Tissues. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table XIV.—Dyestuffs. Cwts.	Value in florins.	Table XV.—Glassware. Cwts.	Value in florins.
1832,	4,620	700,000	165,000	490,000	92,000	1,600,000
1833,	4,420	630,000	150,000	491,700	95,000	1,710,000
1834,	4,530	700,000	170,000	492,000	90,200	1,700,000
1835,	4,180	600,000	186,000	547,000	96,000	1,824,000
1836,	4,500	640,000	180,000	538,000	86,600	1,632,000
1837,	7,080	960,000	171,000	513,000	72,620	1,440,000
1838,	7,600	1,140,000	175,000	525,000	98,450	1,969,000
1839,	9,880	1,480,000	189,900	589,000	119,700	2,274,300
1840,	10,100	1,500,000	190,000	597,000	124,570	2,222,000
1841,	10,500	1,575,000	199,000	610,000	130,000	2,340,000

Years.	Table XVI. Sundries. *Val. in florins.*	Table XVII. Tot. For. Products. *Val. in florins.*	Table XVIII. Tot. Dom. Prod'cts. *Val. in florins.*	Table XIX. Grand total. *Val. in florins.*
1832,.....	5,430,800	13,000,000	31,000,000	44,000,000
1833,.....	5,554,900	13,000,000	27,000,000	40,000,000
1834,.....	5,704,700	14,000,000	28,000,000	42,000,000
1835,.....	5,350,000	15,000,000	31,000,000	46,000,000
1836,.....	5,726,250	16,000,000	38,000,000	54,000,000
1837,.....	4,509,600	14,000,000	31,000,000	45,000,900
1838,.....	4,447,050	15,000,000	27,000 000	42,000,000
1839,.....	4,238,610	16,000,900	32,000,000	48,000,000
1840,.....	5,151,855	16,500,000	25,100,000	41,600,000
1841,.....	5,789,850	17,500,000	20,000,000	37,500,000

Note.—These tables contain exports by sea only. Of the foreign products exported by sea, according to Table XVIII., about two-thirds are shipped to other Austrian ports.

Explanation.—Table IV. embraces cream of tartar, gums, roots, and medicinal seeds. Table XIV.—Dye-stuffs—embraces white lead, dye-woods, sumach, and coloring earths.

Art. II.—SKETCHES OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

FREE TRADE *vs.* PROTECTION—DEBATE IN THE UNITED STATES SENATE.*

On motion of Mr. Evans, the subject was resumed on Monday, the 5th of February, and he addressed the Senate three hours that day and two hours the next day, in reply to Mr. McDuffie. The great length of this speech, the vast elaboration of the arguments, and the infinite variety of illustrations which it contains, render it impossible to make a compendium embracing more than the mere points bearing directly upon the policy of protection, which, after all, was the immediate point at issue. Even in this particular, we shall be obliged to state these points in substance, but shall do so with a strict regard to fairness and precision.

Mr. Evans, after a few prefatory remarks, classed the views of his opponent (Mr. McDuffie) under three heads, which he undertook to answer *seriatim*. These were, *first*, that the tariff of 1842 would cause such a decline in the revenue as to render a resort to other and more oppressive modes of taxation inevitable, and that the government would become bankrupt, and commerce and business would be destroyed; *second*, that it inflicted an unjust and unequal burden on the mass of the people, by enhancing the prices of all articles of general consumption, and prohibiting foreign imports; and *third*, that it operated with excessive and peculiar injury upon the southern and planting states.

The first of these propositions, the not producing of a sufficient revenue, Mr. Evans maintained he had refuted in his former argument, by the test of facts derived from the custom-house books. The next proposition, the decline of commerce and business, he also maintained was not borne out by facts, for an opposite state of things existed: no one engaged in commerce complained; there was no evidence of discontent on the part of those most interested in business; on the contrary, facts proved that inward freights had increased 30 per cent since the passage of the act; vessels were in greater demand; and commercial business was more active than it had been for years under a reduction of duties. With regard to the third proposition, the peculiarly injurious effect of the tariff on southern interests, that he also met with a direct denial that facts justified any such inference. He maintained that the prices of southern staple exports had risen, and the demand for them had become more active; in proof of which, he referred to the advance in the quotations of the New Orleans prices current, contrasting January of 1843 with January of 1844, which showed the improvement on cotton to be from 40 to 75 per cent, and on tobacco from 5 to 10 per cent. He admitted, Mr. McDuffie might insist that all these things took place *in spite of*, and not *in consequence of* the tariff act; but, in answer to that, he maintained that experience had proved that every recourse to high protective duties had been called for by a bankrupt state of the treasury, a general prostration of commerce and business, and the universal distress of the country; that when adopted, prosperous results had always been predicted and promised by the friends of protection, and these predictions and promises had been uniformly fulfilled, as they had been in the instance of the pre-

* The debate, continued in the order it occurred, from the last number of this Magazine, p. 421.

sent tariff. Lower prices of the articles protected had always followed protection, and, contrary to the theories of free trade advocates, the prices of export staples were always sustained if not increased. This, he insisted, was a legitimate process of inductive reasoning in favor of the protective policy. In proof of his positions, Mr. Evans referred to the tariff act of 1828, which had been denounced in advance by free trade advocates as destructive of revenue, commerce, and the southern interests; yet one of its antagonists, Mr. Calhoun, had in a speech made during one of the sessions of the 26th Congress, attributed to it the disasters and revulsions of 1837–8–9, on the ground that it had produced such an overflowing treasury, that, after paying off the national debt, in order to get rid of the surplus revenue, that surplus had to be distributed to the states, producing a stimulus through the bank of the United States to the banking system, which caused enormous bank expansions, irrational over production, wild speculations, reckless extravagance and indebtedness, reaction, revulsions, sudden contractions, and universal bankruptcy. Here, then, was evidence from the best southern authority that the protective tariff of 1828, instead of destroying revenue and commerce, had too much increased both. Mr. Evans also referred to the contrast of the condition of the country prior to 1824, with that succeeding the tariff of that year, as a further illustration of his position. He then went back to the year 1789, and traced the same effects from the same causes, in every change of tariff. He attributed the misappreciation of the protective policy, on the part of his opponent, Mr. McDuffie, to a reliance on Adam Smith's elementary principles, many of which have had to yield to more enlightened experience.

In reference to Mr. McDuffie's conception, that he (Mr. Evans) had imagined poverty could be legislated out of the country by the mere fiat of an act of Congress, he begged to set the senator right, by stating that his position was, that legislation could provide for employment being given to the unemployed, so as to promote productive industry by securing to it an adequate remuneration and steady continuance of profitable employment—thus insuring the increase of the laborer's comforts and enjoyments, while adding to the general stock of wealth in the country. If this, as Mr. McDuffie contended, could not be done, but by transferring money from the pockets of one person into those of another, Mr. Evans maintained that, so as the transfer could be made from the pockets of foreigners into those of American laborers, the protective policy would be productive of the object its friends had in view—the profitable employment of American labor, and increase of American national wealth, in preference to the profitable employment of foreign labor and increase of foreign national wealth. As a striking instance of the magnificent results of protection, he adverted to the history of the navigation act of England, which, in one hundred and fifty years, had reversed the commercial standing of Holland, as contrasted with that of England, rendering England the greatest commercial nation in the world, and prostrating Holland, (once the mistress of the ocean,) till she became what she now is, the most insignificant commercial state of Europe.

As additional illustrations, he referred to the protection of the sugar interest of Louisiana; to the railroad system, fostered and encouraged by legislation, yet resulting in the benefit of the community, as well as of the speculators in railroad stock; and to the fact, that, if commerce could

be benefited by free trade, it was extraordinary that a consignor of articles free of duty, could not make a cent more profit after selling them in market here, than a consignor of dutiable articles, nor could a vessel freighted with the one make more per cargo than one freighted with the other.

As to the term *price*, he maintained that there was a great delusion about it; inasmuch as the idea was always associated with *money* instead of *exchangable value*. But even in the *money* sense, the community would ultimately be benefited by protection; because the home manufacturers being secure of the market, would embark larger capitals in their business, multiply their productions, bring a larger quantity of goods into competition, and, consequently, render inevitable a reduction of price to the lowest rate of fair remuneration for labor. Reverting, however, to the delusion as to the term *price*, he maintained that the true doctrine was, that no price, however low, could be cheap to the person who had not means to buy; while any price would be cheap to him who was in the continual receipt of means of exchange, whereby he could obtain what he wanted with an equivalent that had cost him an equal or less amount of his own labor than the amount of labor bestowed on the thing he exchanged for, by its producer. On this principle, he argued that, as protection insured to American labor a just remuneration for industry, and therein additional means to those employed of becoming consumers of imports, the protected laborer necessarily became an additional contributor to the revenue, because it was giving, by legislation, to industry the ability and capacity for consumption, which, without such legislation, it could not, by reason of foreign competition, otherwise enjoy. And as to the assumption that duties fell upon the consumers altogether he insisted, that political economists and experience had proved they did not; but had demonstrated that such duties were divided upon the manufacturer, the intermediate dealers, and the consumers. He denied that Mr. McDuffie's position could be maintained, that the exchange of our rude or raw export products for imports of foreign manufactures, was a fair and equal exchange of labor for labor; as the fact must result, on the principles laid down by Adam Smith, that the *whole* of the labor of the export staple country would, in practice, be exchanged for a mere *fractional part* of the manufacturing labor of the manufacturing country; the difference between the *whole* labor of the one, and the *fractional part* of the particular labor of the other, being an entire loss to the rude staple producing country.

Mr. Evans next quoted largely from Professor Tucker's recent work, on the Progress of the United States in Fifty Years, to show that labor was as well rewarded in the southern states as in the manufacturing states, and that capital yielded as much profit (all products being considered) in one section of the Union as in another. The remainder of Mr. Evans's argument was devoted to a refutation of the proposition advanced by Mr. McDuffie, that a division of this Union into three distinct and independent confederations, each possessing homogeneous interests, would redound to the unparalleled prosperity of the south, and occasion the downfall of the New England states. But, as this argument does not add any force to the doctrine of protection, it is presumed unnecessary to dwell upon it here. It will be sufficient to say, that Mr. Evans maintained, through a very elaborate and well sustained train of reasoning,

that no confederation could exist upon an isolated interest, and that the greatest advantages and blessings of the Union resulted from the diversity of interests, climates, soils, and productions, which afforded such various paths for the diversified pursuits of industry.

Mr. Woodbury next obtained the floor, and on the 7th and 8th February occupied the attention of the Senate for about five hours. We labor under considerable difficulty in attempting any synopsis of this speech; a speech esteemed, wherever it has been read, as a masterpiece of statistical research, and the most formidable array of facts ever brought forward in this country against the protective system.

Mr. Woodbury, leaving the discussion on more elementary principles to Messrs. Evans and McDuffie, at once avows his purpose of addressing himself to figures and facts. One fact he calls to mind, which he considers not a little important as an answer to the strong appeals made from the other side in favor of not disturbing the law of 1842, and that is, that it never could have become a law except as a temporary measure in a great emergency; and he recurs to the vote in the Senate on its passage, to show that it would have been rejected but for the casting votes of Messrs. Wright, Buchanan, and Williams, who avowedly looked to its speedy revision, being entirely dissatisfied with many of its provisions. In proof of this, Mr. Woodbury quotes passages from their speeches on giving their votes. Neither was it probable, he thinks, that the president would have signed the bill, had he not contemplated its modification by the then next Congress. Under all these circumstances, he conceives that the plea urged against any immediate revision of the tariff, must be considered untenable. There is also extant, he says, a letter from Mr. Clay, which has gone the rounds of the newspapers, in which he expressly declares that the act of 1828 was "discreditable to American legislation," because it was a *high tariff* measure. Now, if that was a tariff act deserving of this stigma, Mr. Woodbury thinks the act of 1842 is much more so, since, in its general features, it is as objectionable, while, in many instances, it is more objectionable, the duties being left by it more onerous. Mr. Woodbury enumerates several articles of importation on which the duties under the act of 1842 are as high, and others higher, than the duties were under or after the act of 1828, and many of these are articles of general consumption. He adduces numerous proofs of this, showing that when nominal, they were no higher by the act of 1842, than the law stood after the passage of that in 1828. The act of 1842 was the most onerous and oppressive if the duty was specific—because prices had fallen much since 1828—and a like specific duty now, would be much more on the value now.

Mr. Woodbury gives a general history of the energies put into requisition by the manufacturers to get the act of 1842 passed by Congress, with a view of showing that it was accomplished by the activity and address of a very small number. This, he holds, never could have been accomplished, had it been possible to interpose the judgment of the mass of the people. The sole object was protection, not revenue: for the duties, in most instances, were made to transcend not only the revenue point, but to reach the point of absolute prohibition. By treasury documents furnished to Congress, it appears that, by reducing the specific duties to ad valorem duties, there are not less than forty of the prime necessaries of general consumption taxed far beyond the revenue point—

some to prohibition—the duties ranging from 50 to 100 per cent. In many of these, the true revenue point would have been between 15 and 20, or, at most, 25 per cent. In proof of this, Mr. Woodbury gives the following table :—

Several Articles in the Tariff of 1842, *which pay a higher duty than* 30 *per cent—when specific, reduced to a scale ad valorem, at the Treasury Department, except when in brackets.*

Boots, silk,.....	50 to 75	per cent.	
Coal,.....	61	"	
Cordage,.....	71 to 188	"	
Cottons,.....	49 to 63	"	
*printed hdkfs.,	[132]	"	
† many others,.	[50 to 150]	"	
Cotton bagging,.....	53 to 55	"	
Gunny cloth,.....	[100]	"	
Clothing, made up,..	40 and 50	"	
" embroider'd,	50	"	
Flour, wheat,.....	70	"	
Fruits,.....	50	"	
Glass, computed by merchants,.....	[186 to 243]	"	
Gloves, children's,...	75 to 50	"	
" kid,.....	60	"	
Hats,.....	[35]	"	
Hemp,.....	[39]	"	
Iron,‡ pig,.....	45 to 72	"	
" scrap,.....	50	"	
" bar,.....	85	"	
" rolled,.....	77	"	
Leather,.....	53	"	
Lead,.....	[100]	per cent.	
Whiting,.....	146	"	
Linseed oil,.....	[50]	"	
Molasses, ...	51	"	
Oilcloth,.....	67	"	
Opium,.....	75	"	
Pepper,.....	130	"	
Paper, [97 by merchants,].....	35	"	
Salt, 80, [and Turk's island.....	144]	"	
Silks,.....	40 to 65	"	
Shoes,.....	50 to 75	"	
Soap, soft,.....	50	"	
Sugar, brown,.....	71	"	
" refined,.....	101	"	
" syrup,.....	[161 by merchants.]		
Spirits,.....	61	"	
Spices,.....	[50 to 90]	"	
Tobacco, in cigars,.	40	"	
Wines,.....	60 to 67	"	
Woollens,.....	40 to 87	"	

To show that its design was to favor a small class of the community at the expense of the great mass, Mr. Woodbury refers to the fact that, while the farmer is taxed oppressively, by duties on the imports he consumes, the articles which enter into competition with his own products, such as hides, linseed, cheap wool, rags, quills, silk, bristles, hemp, flax, lead, tin, &c., considered necessary for the manufacturer, are taxed so light as to give the home producer little or no protection. This will be seen in the following table, which Mr. Woodbury adduces :—

DUTIES, DISCRIMINATING FOR MANUFACTURES, AND AGAINST AGRICULTURE, &c.

Agriculture, and other raw material, low.	The manufactured materials, high.
Hides,§ 5 per cent.	Leather, 35 per cent.
Linseed, 5 per cent.	Linseed oil, 25 per cent.
Wool, cheap, 5 per cent.	Woollens, 28 to 60 per cent.
Cork, bark, free.	Corks, made, 25 to 30 per cent.
Rags for paper, 1 cent per lb.	Paper, 15 to 17 cents per lb.
Quills, unprepared, 15 per cent.	Quills, prepared, 25 per cent.
Silk, raw, 50 cents per lb.	Silks, $2 50, &c.

* Several articles pay so high a duty now, as to stop all imports of them; and hence the rate has to be computed otherwise than at the department, and on the values of 1840.

† See a schedule, computed on an English price-current of Steward & Co.

‡ Seventeen articles pay from 45 to 235 per cent on their cost abroad. See table in memorial from New York.

§ $4,118,000 were the imports of only three articles out of the fifteen, in 1840, viz :—

Hides,.....	$2,756,214
Cheap wool, (under 8 cents,).....	675,009
Hemp, (all kinds,).....	686,777
Total,.....	$4,118,000

DUTIES DISCRIMINATING FOR MANUFACTURES, AND AGAINST AGRICULTURE—Continued.

Agriculture, and other raw material, low.	The manufactured materials, high.
Bristles, 1 cent per lb.	Brushes, 30 per cent.
Brass, crude, free.	Brass, manufactured, 30 per cent.
	" kettles, 12 cts. per lb.
Hemp, 30 to 32 per cent.	Cordage, 100 to 130 per cent.
	Cotton bagging, 50 to 80 per cent.
Cotton, 3 cents, or 33 to 25 per cent.	Cotton cloths, 80 to 120 per cent.
Flax, raw, 1 cent, or 7 to 9 per cent.	Flax, manufactured, 25 to 50 per ct.
Lead, crude, 1½ to 3 cents per lb.	Lead, pipes, &c., 4 cents per lb.
	" white and red, 4 cents per lb.
Tin, crude, in pigs, 1 per cent.	Tin, in plates, 2½ per cent.
Wood, rough, 20 per cent.	Wood, manufactured, 30 per cent.

It is absurd, Mr. Woodbury thinks, to tell the farmer his interests are equally guarded, because adequate duties are imposed against the importation of grain, beef, pork, lard, potatoes, &c., most of which are so much cheaper in this country than in any other, that no foreign nation can entertain an idea of growing them for export to the United States. It is all a gross delusion—got up to blindfold the farmer from seeing the unjust partiality of legislation for the favored few. Mr. Woodbury quotes from the works of Jefferson, Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and other eminent statesmen, of different political creeds, various passages to show that, anterior to 1816, except in cases of retaliation, no duties but those for revenue were ever thought of—protection to manufacturers being a mere incident—and that the true revenue point was esteemed not to exceed 15 per cent. A paramount objection which Mr. Woodbury has to the act of 1842, is, "that it taxes articles of trade so high as to tend to break up trade itself; that it taxes necessaries higher than luxuries; that it taxes the person in its operation, rather than property or ability to pay; and, in many cases, by one specific duty, it collects from the consumer, in middling or indigent circumstances, as large a tax on a coarser and cheaper fabric, than on a finer or more costly one of the same name, worn by the rich. The only effectual mode of preventing partiality and oppression in such bills, is to fix a liberal maximum of 20 or 25 per cent. Within that, the duty may well fluctuate, rather than be rigidly horizontal, if revenue objects require and admit it; so as to relieve necessaries some, if practicable, and favor the needy rather than the wealthy, and graduate most, if not all duties, on a scale ad valorem—so that the people can know the true extent of their burdens, and each pay only in proportion to the value of what he consumes." If this principle of prohibitory duties for the benefit of a favored class, (the manufacturers for instance,) were to be carried out at the will of a majority, it would lead to the adoption of the odious corn-law system of England, and legislation might be turned against manufacturers for the exclusive benefit of agriculturists; hence, Mr. Woodbury argues, the vicious tendency of varying the amount of duty on particular articles beyond the ordinary and settled standard for mere revenue. Mr. Woodbury points out the fallacy of relying upon calculations based on the receipts of revenue for a particular quarter or month, as an evidence of the income to be permanently expected from the act of 1842; the tendency of the duty it imposes, being, to cause great fluctuations, as experience had proved: the falling off, or excess of one quarter over another, under its operation, having already varied a million or more, thereby precluding any reliance on its steady operation.

It seemed absurd to argue that the tendency of such high duties could be favorable to revenue, when it is notorious that experience proves the tendency to be to check and diminish imports through the customs, and to encourage and increase smuggling. Much had been said about the revival of business, as if it were the effect of the act of 1842, while the palpable and real causes of the stimulus to trade, both in this country and in England, were to be found elsewhere—as one instance, in the impulse given to the commerce of the world by the opening of the new markets in Asia, and by the abundance of capital offered at low rates of interest to embark in new enterprises. Experience had proved that any considerable rise of duties always checked, instead of stimulated revenue. The net revenue from customs, in 1817, was about $26,250,000, which, on the credit system then in force, had accrued chiefly on the imports and tariff in force in 1816. "Now," observes Mr. Woodbury, "so far from its rising under the higher duties of 1817, or the still higher of 1824, or even of 1828, it had, in 1818, fallen to about $17,000,000, and had never again equalled $26,000,000, till 1832; and then had become larger, not by means of more natural business and of higher duties, but by much larger imports, artificially swollen, to bring home the proceeds of state loans abroad. I quote from the official receipts and expenditures, published in 1842, p. 242. If the last report of the secretary of the treasury differs from the document I quote, in some details, both agree in the general results I have stated."

Mr. Woodbury also objects to the act of 1842, on the ground that it imposes a heavy burden on large classes and sections of the country, to favor small classes and particular sections, instead of operating equally on all classes and sections and for revenue purposes. Its average rate of duties, for convenience in computation, may be taken at 40 per cent, though it is 2 or 3 per cent lower. Under the operation of this act, the imports of dutiable articles similar to those manufactured here, amount to only $30,000,000, which, at 40 per cent, yield $12,000,000. Suppose, on the same imports, the real revenue duty of 20 per cent were levied, it would yield only half the latter sum; showing, palpably, that the other half is a tax on the general consumers for the exclusive benefit of manufacturers. The tax does not stop there, but is extended to all the products of the protected manufacturers, the prices of which are thereby ratably enhanced. "Now," observes Mr. Woodbury, "these similar domestic manufactures, made and consumed in this country, equal in value annually about $200,000,000. 40 per cent on that, is $80,000,000; but as half of it would be gained by an incidental and necessary, equal and proper protection from a 20 per cent revenue tariff, the only addition to the public burdens, by the partial and high discriminations, is $40,000,000; making, with the other $6,000,000, about $46,000,000 paid yearly to the benefit of the manufacturing classes. As those classes constitute only one-eleventh of our whole population, ten-elevenths of the sum is paid by other classes for the benefit merely of that one-eleventh. Now, could such a system, so unequal and anti-republican as this, and so oppressive to ten-elevenths of the people, stand a single hour, if the facts were accurately understood? No, sir, no. But the fallacy is widely circulated that the increased duty, rather than enhancing the price of articles, reduces it; and when that paradox does not gain full faith, from its contradictions to experience and common sense, as well as theoretical reason,

it is urged that the apparent beneficiaries of the tax are not alone aggrandized by it, but the whole country made more prosperous, and better able to pay enhanced duties and prices. Let us scrutinize this delusion a little. . . . . Adam Smith, Ricardo, Huskinson, McCulloch, Tooke, and many others, make their calculations that an enhanced duty augments the price, just as naturally as that higher rents, or wages, or interest, tend to make an article cost more; just as naturally as more fuel added, increases the fire—more rain raises the streams. Franklin, in this country, says that high duties on the importation enables the manufacturer to *tax the home consumer by greater prices.*"

Mr. Woodbury enters into a variety of details, and cites numerous authorities and documents illustrative of this position; for which, however, we cannot here make room. These illustrations he thus sums up: "It then follows that, as a general principle, the enhanced price of the foreign article, and also of the domestic article, is paid by the consumer. This, we have already shown, equals here, now, beyond a fair revenue, about $43,000,000 yearly; and as the manufacturers constitute but one-eleventh of the whole, ten-elevenths of it is paid by other consumers, and for the benefit of that one-eleventh. As most of these others belong to the agricultural classes, they being near three-fourths of all our population, the great mass of this enormous burden is thrown on them, and must induce them in time, as the real facts are well understood, to demolish the whole system of partial protection, and require, as some of us do now, that a tariff for such protection be corrected without unnecessary delay. What does it amount to per head yearly, including their families? Over $2 to each man, woman, and child, on an average."

Mr. Woodbury next proceeds to the injurious effect of this high tariff on agricultural products, and points to the already extensive market offered by Great Britain and her dependencies; a market that, he argues, could be immensely increased in value and extent by a moderate and true revenue duty on British products imported into this country. After quoting and urging numerous statistical details, showing the amount and value of foreign markets for our agricultural products, and pointing out the check of a high tariff on those markets, Mr. Woodbury proceeds: "And what, sir, is offered in reply to all the dangers and losses a perseverance in this system exposes us to in our greatest foreign markets in Europe? A new and better home market instead of them. This is another of the plausible and deluding positions that reconcile many to the restrictive system, but which cannot stand the test of scrutiny or facts. There is a charm to the hearts of all, in the word 'home.' But do not the articles of comfort and necessity, we procure abroad from all regions, help to increase the charm of home, as well as what we raise or make nearer? The tea and coffee we drink from the Indies, the sugar we eat from Brazil, the clothes, and salt, and iron we use from Europe—are they not procured from all climes by means of our labors at home, as well as the other articles we buy, that are made here? But, in an economical or pecuniary view, it is reiterated, again and again, that the home market is the best, and an ample substitute for others. Can gentlemen dwell on this, when so vast a quantity of our productions, consumed at home, is never sold, but used by those raising or making them. Think you, that, for the rest which the producers may desire to exchange or sell, the home market of 1,000,000 or 2,000,000 of people only connected with manufactures, is

as great as that abroad of near 800,000,000—circling, as our commerce does, with that surplus to every zone, and every sea, and better and better still as would become the foreign markets, if we only encouraged more and more the principles of a freer trade with them? Recollect, too, that the home market is, and always has been, first supplied; but still it has proved, and always will prove, to be utterly insufficient for all we raise. Instead of being the best market for our surplus of 100,000,000 yearly, it is no market at all for it, and, but for the foreign markets, the whole would perish on our hands; or the industry of the country would become so paralyzed as not to produce it, and obtain all the necessaries and comforts it brings back in return, and showers over every fireside. So far from the home market being a substitute for the foreign, for all these vast surplus productions, it is filled and glutted, and can take no more of them before they become a surplus. That position, then, is entirely indefensible. Others talk of the near exchanges in the home market, being much more profitable to the producer. But how is the fact? He may, to be sure, quickly exchange a bushel of wheat with a neighboring manufacturer for a shovel, each valued at a dollar; but if, in the freer trade and more open market abroad, under a low duty, the shovel, equally good, could be bought for eighty cents, taking off half the present average 40 per cent duty, and his wheat sold 20 per cent higher, or at a dollar and a fifth, will he not be forty cents better under the low duty? And after all the freight and charges, though equalling half the difference, if the village merchant performs both of these operations for him, and takes his wheat, and lets him have the shovel as quick as the manufacturer could, is he not still a gainer of twenty cents on a dollar? and are not all the great channels, means and instruments of commerce, at the same time, more employed and invigorated by more freights? But others may argue that, by means of the restrictive system, manufacturers will increase so much faster than farmers, that the home market for domestic produce will enlarge so as speedily to consume all the usual surplus, though it will be at a lower price, probably, and furnishing manufactured fabrics at a higher price, as before shown, if a high duty is continued as necessary to protect them. But every one who scrutinizes our commercial records, knows that experience teaches just the reverse of this. The surplus productions, that the home market cannot purchase and consume, have increased, rather than diminished, since this restrictive system was in force. Under it, instead of its becoming less necessary to go abroad, it has become more necessary. In a country with such immense quantities of fertile land, at low prices, the agricultural productions increase faster, far, than the manufacturers; and every addition to our agricultural population, which is made at the rate of 4 per cent yearly, augments, rather than diminishes the surplus, as each new member of society here, instead of being, as in some countries, a new burden, and eating up a part of what the others have, or need, becomes a producer, and, ere long, adds yearly to the common income much more, on an average, than he consumes. Gentlemen seem blind to this beautiful and encouraging peculiarity in our national position, and which should justly render our country long a real asylum for the famished of all nations; and they find it difficult to get rid of European and Asiatic ideas, where agriculture is stationary, and every new birth tends to produce scarcity and suffering. Look at the official figures in connection with these sup-

posed facts. In 1816, by imposing higher duties, we were assured that an additional and better home market would speedily be created by an increase in manufactures, and all our surplus productions would be consumed here, and profitably, and the country become independent of foreign markets, and of the *pauper labor* of Europe. How has this prediction been verified? So far from happening, in the next eight years, ruin overspread the country, and the home market utterly failed as to our surplus. Again: the duties, in 1824, were raised still higher, with a promise that the hope would then be fulfilled, under great additions to our manufactures. They were said to be on the eve of taking root. But, in only four short years, again disappointed in the growth and sufficiency of the home market, came the higher tariff of 1828; and again, in 1842, to run another disappointing round, comes a tariff still higher than that of 1828. In the meantime, to test, by the actual official figures, how poorly the home market has grown in a whole quarter of a century, so as to absorb all or most of our surplus, it appears that this surplus, now required to be exported or to rot on our hands, is near 100 per cent more than it was twenty years ago; and, as before shown, the aggregate of it, exported during the last ten years, is more than double what the aggregate was in the previous ten. Even during the greatest height of the duties, it appears, by the tables used on the other side, from 1821 to 1832, the period when the duties began to be reduced, the surplus, instead of being more and more used up here and purchased in the home market, increased from $43,671,894 to $63,137,470—about 50 per cent. At this rate of progress in the *home market*, (taking off all our surplus,) it would not be effected till doomsday; and, indeed, would yearly grow worse and worse, instead of better and better."

Mr. Woodbury next adverts to the effect of the protective system upon navigation, external commerce, tonnage, &c., &c. In fine, he thus lays down the principles which he approves: "Let it not be said that I wish to see the gains by modern machinery and steam abandoned, where these last can be used for large purposes, and with profit. But I would not see them attempted where the state of society, capital, and skill, is not favorable to compete with others in the use of them, without ruinous risks and losses, unless bolstered up by high duties and taxes. I would buy and use such manufactures whenever cheapest and best; but for numerous home wants in a new and agricultural country, like much of ours, why not take what is produced by such establishments and improvements elsewhere, beyond what can be furnished through the frugal aid of household life? Why tempt our own people, by bounties, into the heated atmospheres of great establishments, forced into being, often prematurely here, by high duties, and at the expense of other large classes? What commendation can be bestowed on these, in a country young and enterprising, over the bracing air of the ploughman's field, or the rosy exercise of the dairy, or the transportation of the products of both over the mountain wave, and throwing the line and harpoon in every sea? Most persons point to New England as the best illustration of the great profits by the protective system. But beside the mischiefs already alluded to as incidental to it, what has she gained from it in other respects, when all her population connected with her great cotton establishments, would not fill a single county in several of our states; when the fisheries alone support greater numbers; when many of her sons are, in their habits, almost as

web-footed as the sea-fowl which fly over their heads; when, if not diverted from agriculture, navigation and the fisheries, her hill-sides would, probably, have been ploughed nearer their tops, her swamps more thoroughly drained, her manures improved, additional inventions in raking, threshing, reaping and sowing, sought out, or the present ones discovered sooner, her fisheries doubled, and grown to what they are in England, and her ships still more and more carrying the surplus produce of much of the civilized world? Her population and capital would, in that event, have been as large, if not larger, than now, and the former quite as hardy, moral, useful and American, as it is now; and, by moderate and regular profits, far less tempting to inroads on our frugal habits, and on our primitive morals, now exposed to smuggling and all its train of demòralizations." . . . . "In another point of view, the supposed gain to this country by the use of machinery in great manufacturing establishments, becomes, in truth, only a question between the expediency of having them used here, where dearest, least understood, or least perfect, and abroad, where it is the reverse.

"So, if we go to the statistics of the late census, similar results are demonstrated. It is imperfect in some respects, and conclusions somewhat different are drawn by different persons. But after being revised and corrected, the gains in manufacturing, though high, are probably not much higher than in other pursuits, if we deduct what is added by the discriminating duties. Without that deduction they reach near $160 yearly, on an average, to each person employed and connected with them; whereas, in agriculture, they yield but $62, or less than half, and in navigation, only $80." . . . . "The capital is larger per head in agriculture, than in manufactures; it being $235 each in the first, and $200 only in the last, though in navigation it is higher, being $303 each. Gentlemen may take whichsoever horn of the dilemma is most agreeable; and if the profits are no higher, after the reduction of the gain by high duties, than in other pursuits, there is no advantage to the whole country by the forcing system. We pay for all we get. But if they are higher after it, then the forcing is not necessary, besides its being partial and wasteful in order to aid them."

Mr. Woodbury concludes, by pointing out the folly of supposing that this or any other nation can unite successfully, within itself, the productions and manufactures of all others—all climates and all stages of civilization. "Let us," he observes, "be content to buy all we need where it can, without force, be produced cheapest, whether at home or abroad; and sell all we do not need where it will bring most, whether at home or abroad. In this way, we shall follow out the apparent dictates of Providence, in giving advantages, in some things, to all climates and people, to be exchanged with others through the blessings of free commerce, and thus adopting the best apparent method of increasing our prosperity, and extending civilization, and securing peace throughout the world. While all has changed, and is moving onward, are we to go back and cling to the dark restrictive systems of a ruder civilization? Are we prepared to take the backward step, so as to protect, by discriminating duties, the old channels of commerce by the Euphrates and the Isthmus of Suez, and again to build up Tyre, Alexandria and Venice, rather than doubling the Cape of Good Hope? Are we to tax higher the use of steam in navigation, so as to encourage oars and sails?"

The subject lay over till the 12th of February, when it was again called up by Mr. Evans, Mr. Huntington, of Connecticut, being entitled to the floor. Mr. Huntington occupied the attention of the Senate for two hours on that day, and two hours the next day; but having no ground to dwell upon, that had not been gone over by Mr. Evans, it is conceived unnecessary in this sketch to present any of Mr. Huntington's views, except such as offer some new phasis of the question at issue. In the first part of his speech, he attributes to some of the present advocates of free trade, in Congress, the amendments to the act of 1828, when that act was in the progress of legislation, which amendments earned for the measure, after its effects were experienced, the title of "a bill of abominations;" he deems it unjust, therefore, to charge the friends of protection with the odium due to their opponents. Passing all this, however, and coming to the experience of years, Mr. Huntington argues that protection had effected all its friends ever promised; and, as an instance, with regard to cheapening prices, he states that salt which cost $1 per bushel before high tariffs were established, could now be purchased in this country at twenty cents, because the domestic manufacture of that article had grown to maturity under the protective policy. Such had also been the effects of that policy with respect to leather, paper, cotton goods, woollens, &c., &c. Mr. Huntington next dwells on the constitutional question, maintaining the power of Congress to grant protection to home industry; but this not being the immediate point at issue, we deem it unnecessary to cite his arguments.* He combats the idea presented by Mr. Woodbury, that it never was intended by the framers of the constitution to throw all the burden of necessary revenue upon commerce, taking the ground that the fathers of the revolution so abhorred direct taxation, that they never could mean to authorize a resort to excise for the support of the general government, unless in cases of extreme national exigencies, such as embargoes or a state of war; therefore, the ultimate power given by the constitution, to resort to direct taxation, could not be authorized in any case till enough of revenue could not be obtained from customs. He next opposes to the doctrine of free trade—that low duties yield most revenue—the experience of the English government, which, he shows, on the authority of a speech made by Sir Robert Peel, has been the reverse of the proposition, except in reference to the articles of coffee and rum. He then denies the assumption, that England afforded this country a market of any national consequence in amount for its farming products. He contends that previous to the late alterations in foreign tariffs, Massachusetts alone consumed more of the farming products of the rest of the Union, than the amount which the whole of the United States exported to all other nations. He further denies that the falling off in our external carrying trade is owing to the operation of the tariff laws, but contends that it is due entirely to the reciprocity treaties. These treaties, for instance, give what is called the triangular voyage to the navigation belonging to the Hanseatic towns, and other foreign powers, with which we are bound to trade on terms of reciprocity. Mr. Huntington sums up his arguments, by taking Mr. Woodbury to be the exponent of the party opposed to the

* The constitutionality of a protective tariff has been ably discussed in the Merchants' Magazine, Vol. VIII., No. 6, for June, 1843, p. 512, &c., by the Hon. Charles Hudson, of Massachusetts.

protective policy, and reduces his speech to the following propositions: 1. That the tariff law of 1842 is destructive to revenue, instead of being a law to provide revenue; 2. That free trade is the only sound and rational policy most conducive to national prosperity and general civilization, and therefore it ought to be adopted, or, at least, as close an approximation to it as circumstances will permit; 3. That the imposition of duties on imports enhances prices to the consumers, for the benefit of the *few* at the expense of the *many*. To each of these propositions Mr. Huntington opposes the following: 1. That the act of 1842 *is* not only productive of revenue, but of more revenue than was obtained under the low duty system during the last year of the compromise act; 2. That in the present state of the world, universal free trade is impracticable, and no advances towards it can be made by any nation that will not operate injuriously to it, being one-sided, and opposed by the restrictions of other nations; 3. The experience of all the tariff acts ever adopted by this government, had been to build up home manufactures, till they grew strong enough finally to compete with foreign rivals, and hence they had always conduced to the diminution of prices to the consumers.

The subject was again resumed on the 16th February, and Mr. Phelps, of Vermont, took the floor. The same remarks will apply to Mr. Phelps's speech, as to Mr. Huntington's, that Mr. Evans had exhausted the subject, and, therefore, it was impossible to avoid going over the same ground. We shall advert only to such positions taken by Mr. Phelps, as present anything new or more striking than the arguments we have already quoted. Mr. Phelps spoke for two hours, on the 16th, and three on the 19th. As to the usefulness of the discussion even upon a question leading to no practical result, he takes ground, at the outset, opposed to that taken by Mr. Evans: for, he admits that this debate (in the Senate) is of great importance, inasmuch as it must tend to the dissemination throughout the country of the ablest arguments upon the policy of protection which can be brought forward on both sides of the question. It is a matter of such absorbing interest, that he conceives the constituents of every member of Congress who votes on the subject, will expect to know the reasons by which he is influenced in the side he takes. He is therefore in favor of full and free discussion. Mr. Phelps, having thus shown his approval of the debate, proceeds methodically to review the arguments of Messrs. McDuffie and Woodbury. First, he meets the assertion of Mr. McDuffie, that the act of 1842 was "a foul and faithless violation of the compromise act," by a comparison of the two laws, to show that both were framed with a view of providing for home interests and the payment of cash duties; that both looked to the obtaining of a sufficient revenue for the bare wants of the government; and because the one, towards the close of its term of trial, failed to effect that object, the other was rendered necessary. There could be no violation of a pledge, that there was no obligation to continue longer than it was the will of legislation to continue it. The compromise act was not of the same nature as a bill involving private rights, which necessarily implies final and unalterable legislation. It was a public bill of national policy, subject, like all other national laws, to alteration or repeal, at the will of the legislative power. Mr. Phelps conceives it is waste of time to cavil about the law of 1842 being a protective law, as he yields the point at once that it is, as it was intended to be, eminently protective of the interests of home industry. He admits that,

in detail, the interests necessarily involved, make that act a very complicated one; but he denies that there is anything unconstitutional in its provisions or principles. To appreciate it fairly, it must be taken as a whole, and not with a view of judging it by its bearings in isolated instances. If there was only one real interest in the country, that of the cotton planters, Mr. McDuffie's principle of protecting that interest, by securing it free trade, might do very well; but, inasmuch as there are other great interests of no less national importance, each of which must be more or less injured by free trade, it became necessary, in legislating for all, to legislate so as to give to the number and magnitude of interests their due preponderance, whilst, at the same time, the legislation for their benefit was made to conduce to the benefit of the interest called upon to yield something for the general good. This, he contends, has been accomplished by the act of 1842, which encourages the growth of a home market for the cotton planters. To show the necessity for some such measure as the act of 1842, Mr. Phelps enters into a full history of the causes which led to its adoption. He then dwells upon the results of that act, among which he enumerates as most important, the restoration of business, public confidence, the credit of the government, and the rapid advance of home industry. The diversion of a portion of the labor of the country from over production in agriculture, to increased extension of manufactures, he deems not the least beneficial of the consequences of the policy of the act of 1842.

Mr. Phelps, in reply to Mr. Woodbury's arguments in favor of cultivating the export market for our farming products, argues that the British market for our breadstuffs is very inconsiderable in proportion to that which is required to absorb the surplus of the whole quantity we grow. For instance, he assumes that the wheat product of the United States, for the year 1842, was 100,000,000 of bushels; and allowing to each individual of our population, three bushels for home consumption, the surplus for export must have been 40,000,000 of bushels; yet Great Britain and her dependencies took only 5,000,000 of bushels of the product of that year, being but one-eighth of the surplus. The theory of increasing exports by increasing imports, he characterises as tantamount to the proposition of increasing one's income by increasing expenditures. To increase the exports of the southern states, the rest of the Union is called upon to spend its means extravagantly upon foreign imports. Now, Mr. Phelps holds that it is a great fallacy to suppose such sacrifices are necessary on the part of the rest of the Union, for the preservation of the foreign market to the cotton growing states. He holds that Great Britain cannot do without our raw cotton, for three reasons: first, because she wants it for the manufacture of such fabrics as she has ample demand for in all other parts of the world, as well as in the United States; secondly, because she wants a vast quantity of cotton fabrics for her own domestic consumption; and, thirdly, because she has just opened a new market in China and India, the extent of which no one can, as yet, conjecture. The protective system has created already a large home market for the cotton planters. Manufactures of every kind have grown up under it, employing a capital of $300,000,000, and yielding at least $240,000,000 of annual products. This state of things could not exist without a manifest increase of national wealth, and an increased ability for the consumption, not only of the products of the earth at home, but of dutiable imports.

On the 21st February, the subject was again resumed, and Mr. Bates, of Massachusetts, obtained the floor. A great portion of Mr. Bates's speech is devoted to a defence of his state, which, he argues, had but one representative out of fourteen, that could be found ready to vote for the tariff bill of 1824, while the tariff acts of 1816 and 1824 were openly carried by the support of southern members. Mr. Bates then gives a brief review of the history of those acts, and of the subsequent act of 1828, with a view of exonerating Massachusetts from the stigmas cast upon her by the south. He next adverts to the elementary principles of labor being the source of wealth, and on that ground advocates manufacturing labor as of equal consequence with other branches of industry. Jealousies had been fomented between agriculturists and manufacturers, by representing the profits of the latter as exorbitant; but Mr. Bates goes into many statistical details to prove that this is a gross exaggeration. As an instance of the actual profits, he takes the capital invested in the manufactures of Lowell at $9,500,000, which, he asserts, yielded for the last two years but 6 per cent profit.

The general views of Mr. Bates accord with those of Messrs. Evans, Huntington, and Phelps, which he sustains with much eloquence and effect, adding great force to their advocacy of protection; but elaboration of these arguments is not deemed necessary in this sketch, the object of which is to present, in a compressed form, the mere points at issue in the debate.

Art. III.—THE KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES.

Commercial statistics of Naples and of Sicily are of the most unsatisfactory kind, from the secrecy the government maintains in its custom-house reports. The great advantage to be gained by turning our attention to such ports, is the knowledge we get of what *might* be done, did a different policy prevail, and the channels of trade that may be thrown open any year, by a single edict of government. The greatest fortunes made in our country through foreign commerce, have been gained by some sudden change in a foreign port, which some lucky man first took advantage of. A slight change in the policy of the Neapolitan and southern governments, would give some men fortunes at once. For instance: let the quarantine be removed from vessels coming from the Black sea, or from a certain class of vessels that have come down the Bosphorus without stopping, and the man who should employ a steamer to cut ice in that sea, and sell it in the southern ports of the Mediterranean, would make a fortune in a single summer. Or let the duty on foreign timber be removed, and the exporter of American wood would need but a few voyages to secure wealth. The low state of manufactures in the south of Europe, and the drone-like manner in which business is carried on, would soon check the importation; for the market would be glutted, and the golden river stopped. We are not sure the American maple, that is, the curled and speckled maple, would not now be, even with the high tariff, a valuable material for a part of a cargo. Throughout Italy, our maple is regarded a rarer and more beautiful wood than mahogany, and fetches a higher price. Cabinet-work is almost universally inlaid; and mahogany and spotted maple are used together for the richest furniture. We have

seen the private apartments of a royal palace entirely furnished with American maple, and it was exhibited as a rare and costly sight. In the north of Italy, it is known only as an American wood; in the Neapolitan kingdom, a small quantity is obtained from Calabria. The same is true with regard to agricultural and mechanical instruments. Even with the present tariff, could the prejudices of the people against all innovation be removed, there would be an immediate demand throughout the entire kingdom for English and American tools. It is a great pity, that countries so well situated for commerce, should not only shut the world from them, but shut themselves out from all the sources of national prosperity. With one of the most beautiful bays in the world, and occupying, as it were, the commercial centre, its shipping presents a meagre appearance, and the high tariff on all imported articles amounts almost to a prohibition. It is seldom under 100 per cent ad valorem, and often over 150 per cent. For all practical purposes, the king of Naples might as well extend a sand bar from Capri, in both directions, to the shore. There is also a heavy duty on exports, which doubles the burdens on the people. Sicily might furnish grain in almost any quantity to the north of Italy, were it allowed to be taken away freely. The wheat of the island is often stored in pits dug out of soft rock or earth, and walled up in the shape of a bottle, and then hermetically sealed. Grain will keep in this way an indefinite length of time. It has been known to keep a century. I remarked that the export duties were heavy. Grain is free of duty if exported in native vessels; if in foreign vessels, there is a duty of a shilling per cwt. On oil, the duty is fourteen dollars and a half a tun in native vessels, and about twenty-one dollars a tun if exported in foreign vessels.

The last published tables of the tariff on exports from Naples, give, in addition to what we have stated:—

Articles.	*Weights.*	*Money.*
Cotton,	per cwt.	$ 44
Horse-hair,	"	2 33½
Wool,	"	21
Pitch, white,	per ton.	1 09
" black,	"	81½
Liquorice root,	"	55½
Sponges,	"	1 62
Cork,	"	21½
Rags, white,	"	3 68
Colored rags, and Argol, both,	"	1 37
Saffron,	per lb.	05

Cocoons and roda reed are prohibited. This table is not correct to the smallest fraction; and, indeed, in reducing Neapolitan money into ours, reference must always be had to the rate of exchange at the time. It is near enough, however, for all practical purposes, as the tariff in large quantities is given.

This self-destructive policy of a high tariff on the exportation of oil is pursued while Naples has not the monopoly of the trade. Tuscany, Sardinia and Spain, all enter the market with her. Naples and Sicily both possess natural advantages surpassed by few other countries in the world; and yet their people are deprived of all the benefits resulting from them, by the restrictive policy of the government. Men will not produce, when

they are denied a market for their productions; and they will not work, if their labor yields nothing. The laziness of the Neapolitans is proverbial, so is the tyrannical and ruinous policy of the government. Let the latter cease to be a proverb, and the former, probably, would also cease to be. Added to all this, there is an enormous tax on rent, yielding to the government an annual revenue of over $7,000,000.

The disastrous consequences of the high tariff on imports are somewhat mitigated by the vast amount of smuggling carried on along the coast. To save expense, custom-house officers are paid such low wages, they can scarcely live on them. The smuggler pays better, and hence finds but little difficulty in keeping the officer out of the way. The smuggler gives him twice as much for doing nothing, that the government does for working, and why should not he support the smuggler? Added to this, to say nothing of Sicily, the Neapolitan kingdom alone has a coast of nearly 1,000 miles in length, approachable throughout almost its entire extent. Yet this long line of coast is, in many places, thinly inhabited; in others, furnishing a population that are but a grade above the savage. Under such circumstances, the smuggler has a fair field to operate in, and he improves it. To such an extent is smuggling successful, that one often finds the same article he gives a dollar for in Naples, at half that price in the remote villages. In such a government, the smuggler is a public benefactor instead of a criminal, and deserves well of the community.

The chief exports from Sicily are grain, wine, oil barilla, fruit, nuts, shumac, salt and salt fish, brimstone, argol, manna, pumice-stone, liquorice, skins, honey, rags, cotton, wool, saffron and linseed. Of barilla, there are three classes—toka, tokata and pulvere. Brimstone is exported in large cakes, and the inexperienced buyer is often deceived, by the fair appearance of the outside into the purchase of a bad article. If grayish sandy particles are discovered at the bottom when broken, the article is not worth the purchase. Coral is also an article of export; it goes first to Leghorn, and thence over the world. Amber, also, is found in large quantities on the coast, and this island has been regarded as furnishing it in greater abundance than any other part of the world. Like the Papal states, the exportation of rags, especially of linen rags, is enormous. One often wonders where the immense quantities of rags come from in this country, where the people seem to wear them entirely out on their bodies. But it must be remembered that they are gathered and hoarded here, as in no other part of the world. Soap was formerly a great article of export, and was carried by American ships to the West Indies, and sold at a large advance. Most of the grain goes to the north of Italy, Majorca, and Minorca. Of the wines, the Etna and Syracuse are very rich, and drank only in small quantities. Marsala is exported extensively, and has often been sold in the West Indies, by American merchantmen, for Madeira, which it resembles very much, especially after a couple of voyages at sea. It improves by time, and, unlike most of the light wines of the south, keeps well in the hottest climates. It is produced principally on the mountains of the western coast of Sicily.

The imports to the island are cotton and woollen goods, timber, codfish, hides, tin, iron, spices, coffee, cocoa, indigo and sugar. This island furnishes a fair illustration of the practical workings of unjust restrictions on commerce. It contains 10,500 square miles, and nearly 2,000,000 of

inhabitants, which it scantily supports; yet once it was filled with populous cities, and not only supported 6,000,000 of people, but supplied almost the entire Roman market with corn. Now, corn cannot be exported at all without the leave of a public tribunal, whose office is to get the amount raised, and then make a calculation of how much is needed to supply the home demand. If there is a balance in favor of the home consumption, this tribunal can issue licenses for the exportation of a certain quantity. This is all mere form, however, and the tribunal (real patrimonio) never take the trouble to make calculations; and, instead of issuing licences, *sell* them to certain individuals, who thus have the monopoly of the corn trade. Even royalty has been in the market, and speculated in this way. It would be better if it would adopt the plan of the king of Sardinia, who lets the grain alone, but has the exclusive privilege of selling salt, tobacco and gambling cards. If he would let the salt alone, he might be welcome to the rest. The king of the "Two Sicilies" lays *his* hand on the very heart and soul of the land, and gains nothing by it either. With a more liberal policy, and a lighter duty, he would receive a larger revenue than now from the same source. The increased quantity would more than compensate for the high rates. Sicily might be one of the richest countries in the world, filled with thriving cities and an industrious population, if the government was not blind and stupid, as ignorance always is. There has been some change already, and it will progress, till the island will yet furnish, we trust, some of the finest corn-shipping ports in the world.

Naples has similar exports to those of Sicily. Of its wines, lacrima Christi (tears of Christ) is the best, though but little of it ever reaches foreign countries; and, indeed, but little of that, drank in the kingdom by foreigners as such, is the real wine. The cellars of the king, and the higher classes of the nobility, enjoy almost the exclusive monopoly of it. Staves and hoops are exported to some extent, from Castelamare, which is within sight of Naples on the farther side of the bay. The chief export, however, is olive oil. Over 36,000 tuns are exported yearly. It has been estimated at 36,333 tuns, which, at $101 64 per tun, would amount to $3,693,086 12—a pretty fair source of revenue. The whole coast, from Gioja to Gaeta, is covered with olive-trees; but Apulia and Calabria produce the best quality, and in the largest quantities. It is generally shipped at Gallipoli, whence it derives its name of Gallipoli oil. The olive is usually gathered when ripe, and crushed without breaking the stone, and then placed in rush bags and pressed. The first draining is the best. But the olives from which Gallipoli oil is made, are never plucked from the tree, but allowed to drop off of their own accord, and afterwards gathered by women and children. The whole process of manufacturing is rude, and coarse in the extreme. The most simple and slowest process of crushing and expressing is used by the inhabitants, who seem to have settled it as an indisputable truth, that all improvements are injurious. The oils and wines of Italy are usually carried in skins, or small barrels, on the backs of mules. Two are fastened together, and slung across the creature's back, in which manner they are brought from the mountainous regions, by paths inaccessible to any kind of vehicle, into the cities and large towns. It is amusing to see these demure, long-eared animals march. Accustomed so much to narrow paths, they get in the habit of going in single file, so that, however wide

the road may be, they are strung along in a single line, straight or waving, as the foremost one takes it in his head to go. If you are on a mountain path, the tinkle of their bells admonish you of their approach long before they are in sight. From the region round the Gulf of Otranto, there is a constant stream of mules, laden with skins of oil, into Gallipoli. The Gallipolitans have introduced an entirely new kind of warehouses. The town itself is built on a soft rock, and seems designed by nature for an oil depot. Oil, kept under ground, clarifies more readily, and preserves much longer than in any other way; hence, the calcareous rock, on which the town is built, is just the thing for oil cellars. It is easily excavated, and stands close on the sea. The people have had sense enough not to neglect this advantage, supplied by nature, but have bored the rock in every direction, so that, if it were exposed to the daylight, whole sections of it would have the appearance of a honeycomb. The traveller through the town may wonder where all the oil is stowed, for he sees nothing but dwelling-houses around him. If, on inquiry, he is told to enter the basement story of the dwelling, he is no more enlightened, for the low-arched room is apparently empty; but, in the rocky floor of this room, he will find half a dozen holes, five or six feet in circumference, sunk like wells several feet in the rock, and serving as reservoirs for the oil. Here, the dirtiest, muddiest oil soon becomes of itself clear and limpid. From these cisterns it is drawn off into skins, and carried by men to the sea-shore, where it is emptied into a large reservoir, from whence it is again drawn into casks and shipped.

The vineyards of this kingdom are not so beautiful as those farther north. In Tuscany, the vines are trained on low trees, and festooned gracefully from one to the other, making the vineyard one large, green bower; while here, they are trained on tall misshapen poplars, that give to the vineyards a gaunt, naked appearance.

Agriculture, of course, is in a miserable state. The land is fertile, but there is no encouragement to industry; and the little that is done, is performed to great disadvantage. An American farmer would look around in despair, were such agricultural implements as are used here put in his hands. The plough is but little better than a pointed stick, which is run through the ground, turning no broad smooth furrow like our instrument. It is also very light; and we once saw a woman harnessed to one of them, dragging it backwards and forwards through the field, while the man quietly held it behind. The soil was soft, but the mode of ploughing was certainly unique. The region on towards Pæstum is desolate in the extreme. As far as the eye can reach, over the unfenced plain, will be seen roaming herds of buffalo, each with its keeper, who rides among them on horseback, calling them, like dogs, by name. They are not like the buffaloes of our western prairies, but are smaller, blacker, and without the hump. Indeed, our western animal is not the buffalo, but bison. Sometimes you will see a flock of sheep enclosed by a net, within a small space, to keep them from a patch of cultivated ground lying near. The house of the keeper, standing a little distance off on the wide, open plain, resembles a beaver's hut, in shape and is not much larger in size.

The merchant makes the city. Cripple him, and you cripple commerce. Cripple commerce, and you check at once the growth of the soil; and when this commences, the nation has commenced its downward course. It is mournful to stand by the old harbor of Myzenum, where

once rode the Roman fleet, and see not even a fisherman's boat moored amid its ruins; and to stroll along the glorious bay of Salerno, and see no ship riding its bosom. This whole coast is indented with harbors, from which spreads away a fruitful land; but where are the manufactories and shipping? It seems impossible that three centuries should have wrought such a change. If, in a thousand years from now, not a wharf or vessel would be around New York, and over all the island would roam, unchecked, herds of buffaloes cropping the long grass, where now stand well filled warehouses, and run innumerable streets, it would not be a greater change than has passed over some of these cities. Pæstum, once stood by the sea, a city of palaces and luxury. Now, three skeletons of temples, mere fragments of ruin, rise on the desolate plain. Pompeii, with its once crowded streets, is now a hill of ashes; and the old magnificent Mole of Puteoli, can only be dimly traced in the bottom of the bay. Thus commerce shifts, and the prosperity of nations decline. This Italian coast was once the centre of the world's commerce—it is now scarce its outskirts. Yet there is no fatality about this—no insuperable obstacle in the way to a commercial resurrection. Give our laws and commercial regulations to this kingdom, and it would rise at once like a sphynx from its ashes. H.

Art. IV.—WISCONSIN AND ITS RESOURCES.

Among a large portion of our eastern countrymen, there has been an idea prevalent that the picture of the abundant resources and real prosperity of the west, so often exhibited to their view, is highly colored; that extravagance of description has been substituted for simple fact; and that the enthusiasm of young and ardent minds has magnified the native materials of our prosperity, till it was in vain to look or hope for correct delineations of our resources and advantages from those whose homes are in our midst.

The speculations of 1836, resulting so disastrously to a large proportion of those engaged in them, and the constitutions shattered by exposure to the agues of Michigan and the fevers of Illinois, in the wild search for immediate wealth, too often induced the unlucky sufferers to bear home no flattering descriptions of the land, in which they had found disappointment and disease, instead of the realization of their golden hopes. Later years, harder times, and more accurate information, have disseminated more correct knowledge, and more than confirmed the most glowing accounts of western fertility; and the last year has witnessed a result, unexampled even in the history of the rapidly increasing west—a flood of emigration pouring into Wisconsin that has no parallel in the past career of the United States, increasing, as it has, with greater rapidity than any other civilized nation upon the face of the globe.

In 1828, according to the official report, the population of Wisconsin was 18,440; in 1830, it had increased to 30,747; in 1842, to 46,978; and at the commencement of the year 1843, it had undoubtedly amounted to 50,000. The statistics of the Erie canal, for the last five years, exhibit the following amount of furniture as having passed that thoroughfare destined for Wisconsin: in 1838, only 42 tons; in 1839, 742; in 1840, 816; in 1841, 1,190; and in 1842, 1,985. An increase of over 4600 per cent;

while, for all the other states bordering upon the lakes, it has diminished rapidly during the same period. For Michigan, Indiana and Pennsylvania, it has fallen off more than one-half, and for Ohio, and Illinois, more than one-third. Showing that the tide of emigration is no longer flowing exclusively to the organized states of the west, but is sending a mighty current towards our no longer infant territory.

In the opinion of men of capacity and intelligence, whose attention has been directed to the lakes, and whose situation enables them to form a correct judgment, it is estimated that from 50,000 to 60,000 have been added to the population of Wisconsin by the way of the great lakes. Full 10,000 more have ascended by the Mississippi, showing an aggregate of 60,000 or 70,000 souls as the increase of the past season; and the astonishing result of a territory of 50,000, more than doubling her population in a single year.

We may then assume 110,000 as the present population of Wisconsin, and every indication leads us to believe that the emigration of 1844 will far exceed that of 1843.

The geographical position of Wisconsin is decidedly favorable to the development of her vast internal resources. Including within her acknowledged limits all that portion of the United States lying north of the 42° 30′ of north latitude, and between Lake Superior, Lake Michigan, and the river Mississippi, (except the contested territory of Michigan,) she has an area of 95,000 square miles, surrounded by navigable waters, capable of bearing, and yet to bear, to a direct market, the unnumbered millions of her productive wealth.

Though already larger than any state in the Union, her boundaries have been strangely infringed.. Upon the north, west and south, she has been subjected to the rapacious exactions of parent, brethren and stranger, and stripped of portions of her territory, each large enough to form a respectable state.

By the organic act of the Congress of 1787, providing for the government of the northwest territory, in consideration of the cession to the United States, by the states of Virginia, New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, of all their title in said territory, it was ordained that there should be formed within the limits now occupied by Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, not less than three, nor more than five states. The boundaries of the three states were "fixed and established;" but it was provided, that Congress should have "authority to form one or two additional states in that part of said territory which lies north of an east and west line, drawn through the southerly bend or extreme of Lake Michigan." And it was further provided, that the "articles of compact between the original states, and the people and states in the said territory, should for ever remain unalterable, unless by common consent."

Wisconsin, therefore, claims all that portion of Illinois north of the southerly bend in Lake Michigan, a distance of seventy miles upon the lake, including Chicago, and an area nearly as large as the state of Massachusetts, comprising a portion of country unrivalled in its agricultural facilities, and, with the adjoining counties in Wisconsin, capable of sustaining a larger population to the square mile, from its agricultural wealth, than any other section of the same size in the United States.

The title of Wisconsin to this section has been recognized, by Congress itself, by the gift to Michigan of the northwest part of Wisconsin

in repayment of the disputed tract upon the southern part of Michigan, given to Ohio in 1836.

Michigan founded her undoubted title to that tract, upon the same authority that Wisconsin now claims a portion of Illinois; and though the numerical force of the Ohio delegation effected the confirmation of her claim, the voice of the country was raised against such injustice, and Congress, in atonement, despoiled Wisconsin of 20,000 square miles of her territory, and bestowed the same upon Michigan to satisfy her wounded pride and violated rights.

The inhabitants of the disputed territory are also anxious to be publicly acknowledged as a part of Wisconsin, and have at sundry times signified their desire to co-operate with the people of the territory in forming a state constitution, and in a united body demand their admittance into the Union. The ordinance of 1787, the mutual interests existing between the northern part of Illinois and Wisconsin, and the almost universal wish of the inhabitants of the territory in dispute, all require that the claim of Wisconsin should be sustained, and the boundary lines established at the southern bend of Lake Michigan.

That portion of the Chippewa country given to Michigan, is bounded on the north by Lake Superior, and stretches along 300 miles of the southern coast of that great lake. On the west and southwest, it is bounded by the Montreal river, to the Lake of the Desert, and a straight line drawn from the source of said river to the nearest head waters of the Menomonie river, thence down said river to the centre of Green bay, thence through Lake Michigan and the Straits of Mackinaw to the Falls of St. Mary. Subsequent explorations have shown, that the Lake of the Desert empties into the Wisconsin instead of the Montreal, and that the boundary line between Michigan and the territory, is yet undefined; and it is hoped that, when this matter is again brought before Congress, they will listen to our just demands, sustain the spirit of the ordinance that undoubtedly intended that the natural divisions made by the great lakes, should be the boundary lines of the respective states upon their borders, and reaffix to our territory, that portion so allied by nature, and so effectually separated from Michigan, for six months out of the year, except by a tedious journey of 700 miles around the head of Lake Michigan, and through Wisconsin, Illinois and Indiana.

The treaty of 1842, between the United States and Great Britain, again assailed our boundaries. By the same ordinance of 1787, the northern boundary of the fifth state was defined to be "the territorial line between the United States and Canada, to the Lake of the Woods, and Mississippi;" and by the definitive treaty of peace, concluded 1783, between Great Britain and the United States, upon which the boundary lines in said ordinance are predicated, said territorial line was defined as running "through Lake Superior, northward of the Isles Royal and Phillipeaux, to the Long Lake, and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods." By the treaty of 1842, the line left Lake Superior "at the mouth of Pigeon river, and up said river, to and through the north and south Fowl lakes to the lakes of the height of land between Lake Superior and the Lake of the Woods, thence along the water communication," through several small lakes, to Rainy lake.

The late report of the Hon. Moses M. Strong, to the council of the territory, shows, conclusively, that the entrance of Long lake (the boundary

of 1783) into Lake Superior, is through the Kamanistaguia or Dog river, sixty miles northeast of the entrance of Pigeon river, (the boundary of 1842.) The boundary lines, then, of the two treaties, are essentially different; leaving Lake Superior at widely different points, and only reuniting in Rainy lake: thus surrendering to a foreign and a rival power, an area of over 10,000 square miles, without so much as asking the consent of the people of Wisconsin, whose boundary lines were declared to be unalterable unless by common consent.

During the agitation of the northeastern boundary question, the Union was convulsed from one extremity to the other, and prepared for an immediate resort to arms, were our rights violated upon that frontier. Two powerful states were in readiness to exert the full power of their sovereignties, at every risk, in preserving the integrity of their boundaries; and when an appeal was made to the spirit of negotiation, instead of the God of battles, these two states were again admitted, through their commissioners, and allowed to deliberate upon the treaty and determine the quantity of territory they would release, and the equivalents they should receive. But upon the northwestern frontier, an infant territory existed without an organization of her own, and without power in the national Congress; and portions of her territory, larger than the whole of Maine, have been silently taken and bestowed upon neighboring states and foreign powers, without the slightest allusion to her consent as one of the parties, and the only party to be affected by the solemn contract of 1787. It is certainly a matter of serious consideration, whether the cession by the general government, especially to a foreign power, of a portion of Wisconsin, without the consent of the people or even with their consent, while under a territorial government, will be a bar to their claiming, as a state, the boundary guarantied by the ordinance. That, that ordinance was a contract binding upon all parties, cannot be denied; and it is also true, that its terms cannot be altered or rescinded without the common consent.

To preserve the balance of power, the northern states probably stipulated, that there should not be less than three states in the northwest territory; and, for the same reason, the south stipulated that there should not be more than five. The infringement of the boundaries of that territory, at the instance of only one of the contracting parties, is to alter the terms of the contract, and that in one of its most important provisions; thereby doing a deed that is either null and void in its very inception, or that rescinds the mutual agreement, and vests the northwest territory again in the original owners.

The question of our boundaries will come up for future consideration, and cannot be finally settled until the original boundaries are restored, or Wisconsin sees fit to confirm the spoliations already made, and accept an indemnity therefor. And, even if Wisconsin should give her consent, it would seem that the consent of the original donors should first be obtained, before the question can be put at rest for ever.

The river Wisconsin has hitherto been considered the boundary line of the settlements, and those beyond have enjoyed no regular administration of the laws. During the last winter several new counties have been established, in the immense country north and west of that river. Comparatively unknown as is that region, it may be well to bestow rather more attention upon its geographical position than would be necessary in

an older state. Her lakes and rivers, whose names hitherto have been scarcely heard, are upon a scale, as to number and size, commensurate with the magnitude of the territory, and worthy of the resources they are to assist in developing.

First in importance, is the Mississippi, rising in the northwest. It laves the whole western boundary of the territory, offering a great thoroughfare to the markets of the south for all the bordering country. From the Falls of St. Anthony to the southern line of the territory, a distance of 300 miles, it is navigable for steamboats. Above the falls, the stream is broken by occasional rapids so as to impede its navigation, till the country north shall warrant its improvement.

The Wisconsin, the second river in size, rises in the Lake of the Desert, in the northeastern part of the territory, and pursues a southerly course for 150 miles till it approaches within a mile and a half of Swan lake, a small lake through whose waters the Neenah or Fox river flows into Green bay, thence, south by east, it continues a course of 100 miles and enters the Mississippi 40 miles from the southern boundary. This river is navigable for steamboats of ordinary size, for 100 miles; and for batteaux, a much greater distance. The Pine river, after running 100 miles in a due south line, through a heavily timbered pine country, empties into the Wisconsin 30 miles west of Swan lake. This river is navigable nearly its whole distance for rafts, batteaux, &c. Sixty miles north of the mouth of the Wisconsin, by the way of the river, the Prairie de la Crosse, 75 miles in length, empties into the Mississippi. Twenty miles farther up, the Black river empties into the Mississippi. With a little improvement at its mouth, it would be navigable for small steamboats 50 miles to its falls, where there is an immense water power, partially improved, and from the value of the surrounding forests capable of being made a place of great importance. Fifty miles north of the Black river, the Chippewa empties, navigable for small steamboats 75 miles, and for canoes 150 miles; passing through, and drawing its sustenance from numerous lakes, and watering that part of the territory known as the Carver Grant. This river is nearly, if not quite, as large as the Wisconsin. The St. Croix runs in a southwest direction, and empties into the Mississippi, 75 miles north of the mouth of the Chippewa, and 30 miles below the Falls of St. Anthony. It is navigable for small steamboats 40 miles to its falls. Immediately above the Falls of St. Anthony, the Missisagaiegou or Rum river is received. Taking its rise in the dreary Tamerack swamps of the north, it runs nearly due south, and is navigable for canoes 125 miles.

Beside these, the principal rivers emptying into the Mississippi, there are numerous smaller ones, nearly all of which are capable of providing a large amount of water power. Upon the 48° of latitude, Turtle lake gives rise to the Grand Fork, a river running northerly, at the extreme north, dividing Iowa from Wisconsin, and emptying into Rainy lake, through which passes the boundary line between the United States and her Britannic majesty's possessions.

Of the rivers emptying into Lake Superior, the St. Louis is by far the largest; pursuing a tortuous course of over 300 miles, with its general bearing towards the east, through the mountains in the northern part of the territory, it loses itself in Lake Superior, in the extreme western point. For 20 miles from its mouth it presents the appearance of a large

estuary, easy of entrance at all times to the largest vessels, and capable of affording a secure harbor, for all the commerce of the United States. At the head of this estuary, the navigation of the river is interrupted by falls, that, in the course of a few miles, make a descent of over 300 feet. The Burnt Wood, rising in a small lake in the interior, runs nearly due north, and empties in the Superior, 40 miles east of the mouth of the St. Louis. This stream is navigable for batteaux about 80 miles, and is connected by a portage with the waters of the St. Croix. The Mauvaise, or Bad river, rises in Pipestone lake, pursues the same course as the Burnt Wood, and discharges itself into the lake, 75 miles east of the Burnt Wood, by the headlands of the lake, and 15 miles east of La Pointe, the place of the utmost importance upon Lake Superior, and possessing a superior natural harbor, at all times accessible. The Bad river is said to be navigable 100 miles in canoes. Twenty miles further east, is the outlet of the Montreal, a stream much larger than the Mauvaise, and at present the boundary between Wisconsin and the disputed territory of Michigan. It is a rapid, but navigable stream for the Indian batteaux, for over 150 miles, and connects with the Menomonie, by a short portage. This latter stream is also the boundary line of the territory, and empties into Green bay, midway between its north and south extreme. In the southeastern part of the territory, the Neenah or Fox river, taking its rise near the Wisconsin, with which it is connected by a portage only a mile and a half in length, pursues a general northeastern course, passing through several small lakes into Lake Winnebago, thence, by a course of 40 miles, emptying into the southern extremity of Green bay. Ten miles west of Lake Winnebago, the Neenah receives the Wolf river, a stream that rises in the northeast part of the territory, near the source of the Wisconsin, and pursues a southerly course to its junction with the Neenah. It is considerably larger than the Neenah, and is navigable 60 miles.

In that section of the territory between the Wisconsin river on the west, and Lake Michigan on the east, there are few rivers of importance. Of these, Rock river is by far the largest. It runs through the centre of said section for 150 miles, and after an additional course of 165 miles, in the state of Illinois, empties into the Mississippi. Illinois has attempted the improvement of her portion of this river, and it is estimated that $178,000, expended under the control of the state, would be sufficient to render it navigable to the territorial line. The official reports of officers of the topographical corps, show the feasibility of making it navigable through the territory, for vessels drawing two and a half feet of water, to the junction of the Rock and Doty rivers, 150 miles by the way of the river, and only 18 miles from the southern extremity of Lake Winnebago, to which it might be connected by a canal that would divert, if it were necessary, still more water into the channel of the Rock. The second river in size, is the Pashtie or Fox, which runs southerly, parallel to the lake, for about 60 miles in the territory, and empties into the Illinois, near the southern extremity of the Michigan and Illinois canal.

It is a singular fact, that along the western side of Lake Michigan for full one half its length, there are rivers running parallel to it from 5 to 25 miles distant. The Fox river in the territory, is in no case more than 25 miles distant, and the river Des Plaines, which rises in Racine county, and contributes to form the Illinois, in its course of 60 miles, is, in many

places, not over 6 miles distant from the lake. Green bay, in the same manner, drains the country upon the northern half of the lake.

Numerous lakes are scattered over the face of the territory, which, if anywhere else than in the vicinity of those great internal waters by which Wisconsin is surrounded, would render our territory famous. Green bay, though not properly called a lake, as it is connected on the north with Lake Michigan by a channel some 20 miles in width, filled with small islands, is 120 miles in length, by 20 broad, and receives into its waters all those rivers that rise in the northeast part of the territory, and flow in an easterly direction. Lake Winnebago, 10 miles in width, by 30 in length, is situated, as has been remarked, 40 miles southwest of Green bay; and is most known, as, till lately, it marked the boundaries of the settlements. It is surrounded by a beautiful country, adapted to agricultural purposes, and over its waters must pass the commerce that will soon find an outlet at Green bay. Lake De Flambeau, upon the western side, in the midst of a broken country, gives rise to one of the branches of the Chippewa, and averages about 40 miles in length by 10 in width. The country around this lake is highly diversified, resembling more the New England scenery, than the generally monotonous aspect of the west. The Lake of the Desert, 10 by 20 miles in size, formerly supposed to be the source of the Montreal, and the boundary between the Michigan claim and the territory, is now known to give rise to the Wisconsin. Lakes Tomahawk, Courteoreille, and Chi Tac, average, in size, 8 by 20 miles, and give rise to separate branches of the Chippewa. Lake St. Croix, 36 miles by [illegible] receives the waters of the St. Croix, and discharges them into the Mississippi, by a channel two miles in length. Besides these, there are numerous smaller lakes, varying in size from 10 to 50 square miles.

The face of the country presents very different aspects in its different divisions, offering all the variety of mountain, plain, and valley. The southern portion of the territory is comparatively level, the greater part of it alternating between the prairie and the oak openings, the latter of which consist of burr oaks scattered from ten to fifty feet apart, perfectly free from underbrush, and resembling more an ancient park than the forests of a new country. Singular in their growth and position, they are often found running for miles in narrow ridges, parallel to each other, divided by belts of prairie, varying from a few feet to miles in width.

The prairies have a deep black, and exceedingly fertile soil, but are not generally esteemed as highly for the cultivation of wheat as the warmer and more protected surface of the oak openings. They are, however, improved by frequent tillage; and, if secured a few years from the annual fires that sweep over them, will generally be found covered with a thick growth of timber. The centre of the territory, between Illinois and Lake Superior, assumes a more hilly appearance, and as we approach the north, the larger timber becomes more abundant; though, even upon the shores of Lake Superior, and thence extending south, are to be found prairies of respectable size. Numerous tamerack swamps are also to be found in this section, that render the exploration of the country, without roads, somewhat difficult.

It is said by the Hon. Alfred Brunson, who made a report to the last legislature of his travels in the interior of the territory, that "after ascending the Black and Chippewa about 30 miles, the general face of the

country is some 300 feet lower than the bluffs of the rivers and the ridges that divide their waters. These lowlands, as they may be called, though 200 feet above the rivers, are generally level or gently rolling, of a sandy soil, with but little timber, and present the appearance of having been once the bottom of large lakes, formed by the rivers, shut in by the Mississippi bluffs from that stream, but cutting their way through the bluffs, and a channel through the sandy bottoms left the plains far above the present channels of those streams. If this was ever the case, the lake formed by the Chippewa must have been some 300 miles in circumference, nor could that formed by the Black river have been much less."

The agricultural facilities of the more northern part of the territory are not much known. It is unquestionably good for grazing; and the region between the St. Louis and the Montreal is said to be suited to the raising of wheat, and to afford farming sites, excelled by none, even in the west. Hitherto, however, it has only been traversed by the trapper, or the adventurer in pursuit of mineral wealth; and the numerous rivers are the thoroughfares, upon which, in bark canoes, they seek their journey's end. Few demands have been made upon the soil for its fruits, except in the scanty patches cultivated around the trading posts; and, therefore, little can be said of its capabilities, except by report, which characterises the north as an agricultural section scarcely inferior to the south, and richer by far in mines, timber, fisheries, and water power.

Private enterprise is in a fair way to develop some of the resources of the north. Bands of men have recently penetrated to the borders of Lake Superior, allured by the brilliant descriptions of its mineral wealth. Mines of lead, copper and iron, have been represented as abounding, of extraordinary richness, and easy of access; and specimens of silver have been exhibited, as a promise of what Wisconsin can afford of the more precious metals. And though time has not sufficiently elapsed to determine with certainty the result of their enterprise, yet the huge boulders of virgin metal, already extracted from the borders of Lake Superior, and the reports of others, of even greater size and purity, attest the uncontradicted accounts of its mineral wealth and varied resources; so much so, that the secretary of war, in his last report, recommends the construction of a ship-canal around the Falls of St. Mary, that there may be an uninterrupted ship-communication from the lower lakes to the vast mineral region of Lake Superior, and announced the taking possession of the mining country with a military force; so that the enterprise of individuals, has not only to contend with the fastnesses of nature, but with the physical force of the general government.

The construction of that canal will make the northern part of the territory as easy of access as the south or eastern; and should its agricultural fertility in any degree correspond with its other resources, the tremendous influx of population, into that region, will people northern Wisconsin with unprecedented rapidity. Not only will our own territory be benefited by that canal, but an additional impetus will be given to the commerce with the larger portion of British America; and Rainy lake, Lake of the Woods, and even Lake Winnipeg, will be almost as near the markets of the east, as, at the present time, are the borders of the greatest of lakes. According to the secretary's report, this great national work can be "effected by the construction of a canal about a mile in length, through the lands of the United States, around the Falls of St.

Mary, with two locks suitable for passing steamboats, the expense of which will not probably exceed $100,000." Such is the importance of the object, it would seem, that the present Congress could not adjourn without making a suitable appropriation to that effect.

The numerous rivers and inlets along the southern coast of Lake Superior, will, in a great measure, relieve government of the burden of constructing harbors upon that iron-bound coast. At the mouth of the St. Louis, at La Pointe, and at Isle Royal, are natural harbors that no artificial aid can equal. Not so upon Lake Michigan, whose remarkably smooth, regular, and sandy shores, are indented by no inlets, and receive no rivers of sufficient importance to preserve an open channel through the sandy beach. South of the Manitow's, which are situated near the extreme north of the lake, for 300 miles there is no protection for shipping except that which government shall construct. A commerce that, in 1836, amounted to $16,000,000, in 1841, to $66,000,000, and at the present time undoubtedly amounts to $100,000,000, demands the fostering aid of the general government; and yet, though the lake commerce is equal to one-half of all the foreign commerce of the United States, though the public treasury has received over $6,000,000 from the inhabitants of Wisconsin, $30,000 only has been appropriated to facilitate her commerce, and provide an eastern outlet for her agricultural and mineral products. Milwaukie, Racine, and Southport, are the three prominent points that are claimants for congressional appropriations; and the estimated expense of constructing a harbor, at each of these places, is about $80,000 for Milwaukie, $40,000 for Racine, and $44,000 for Southport—the former a place of 6,000 inhabitants, the next of 1,200, and the last of 1,800. Some idea of the importance of these towns, and the rapidity of their growth, may be formed from the returns given at a late census of the village of Southport: in 1840, it had 300 inhabitants; in January, 1842, it had 762; and, in November, 1843, it contained a population of 1,820. The past year, 75,000 bushels of wheat, and nearly 400,000 pounds of lead, have been shipped to the east, notwithstanding the danger and inconvenience of vessels loading at wharves projected into the lake, without protection of any kind.

Can it be possible that the 100,000 inhabitants of Wisconsin will longer be refused the trifling sum of $160,000—trifling compared to the advantages it will secure—to construct those harbors that the safety of their property, and the lives of those who minister unto their wants, imperiously require? Harbors, at the three points mentioned, would double the price of land, and add millions to the private estates of the country, besides adding incalculably to the value of the national domain.

Sank Harbor, Sheboyagau, and Manitowoc, situated farther north—at the mouth of rivers of their respective names—are also claimants of the public bounty, and deserve sufficient appropriations to accomplish the desired object. As the north increases in population, their wants will be more apparent, and the necessity of harbors, at these points, more urgent.

Next to the construction of harbors upon Lake Michigan, no improvement is more demanded by the people of the territory, or would be of greater importance to the country at large, than the connection of Lake Michigan with the Mississippi, by means of a railroad. It is no Quixotic scheme, or idle speculation, to suppose that it is equally needed, and to believe that it would be full as profitable as *any* of the railroads of the

east. It is the last remaining link in the chain of steam communication from the ports of Maine to the Mississippi; connecting, by the shortest route, the father of waters with the busy marts of eastern commerce, and bringing the borders of remote Iowa into immediate contiguity with the shores of the Atlantic.

Such a road, from Southport or Racine, to Potosi or Galena, a distance of 150 miles, would run in a nearly due east and west line, through the most fertile and highly cultivated portion of the territory; penetrating the very heart of the mineral region, and diverting, beyond doubt, millions of pounds of lead from the long and dangerous navigation of the Mississippi, to the safer and more direct passage of the lakes.

Upon the completion of the Michigan railroad, a citizen of Iowa could place his foot in Boston in ninety-six hours after his departure from home. The farmers of Wisconsin, and the northern part of Illinois, would be the first to feel the beneficial influence of a railroad; for their great staple is an article so bulky, that the expense of transportation is often equal to half the value of the wheat; and some of the best wheat lands are from 40 to 75 miles from the lake. The expense of constructing such a road, at a fair calculation, could not exceed $1,000,000 or $1,200,000, as the country over which it would pass is comparatively level. Were it constructed, of the 41,000,000 pounds of lead produced at the upper mines the last year, it would be fair to suppose that three-quarters of it, at least, would pass over this road, paying at the rate of 37½ cents per 100 lbs., which would yield over $100,000; one single article thus paying 10 per cent interest upon the original investment.

Another improvement, hardly less important than the last, and effected at much less expense, is the connection of the Wisconsin and the Neenah or Fox river, and the improvement of this last, so as to open a direct water communication between the Mississippi and Lake Michigan, by the way of Green Bay. The rapids in the Neenah, between Lake Winnebago and Green Bay, present the principal obstruction to this improvement; and it is estimated that these obstructions can be removed at an expense of $375,000, so as to render the river navigable for the smaller class of steamboats that ply upon the Mississippi. For the remaining 110 miles, from Lake Winnebago to Swan lake, (a small sheet of water, separated from the Wisconsin by a portage only a mile and a half in length,) the Neenah is already navigable, and requires only the removal of an occasional sand-bar to afford a sufficient depth of water, at all times, for the craft that will be required to enter her waters. The Wisconsin also requires the removal of a few sand-bars, to render her navigation entirely free; but this can be effected at a slight expense.

At ordinary times, the waters of the Neenah are a foot and a half lower than those in the Wisconsin; but, during the season of high water, the height of land that divides them is covered to the depth of three feet, or more; and waters destined for the Mississippi find their outlet in the St. Lawrence.

The cost of constructing the section of the canal uniting these rivers, as estimated by government agents, will be only $64,000. Thus, for less than half a million of dollars, as determined by estimates made years ago, when the value of every article was much higher than at the present time, a direct water communication can be effected between the Mississippi and Lake Michigan—a communication that will be full as impor-

tant and valuable to the interests of Wisconsin, as will be the Michigan and Illinois canal to the state through which it is to pass.

The obvious importance of this route, and the feasibility of effecting a passage across the country, instigated the early French, a hundred years ago, to locate, at Green Bay, and there establish the earliest settlement in Wisconsin; and it is worthy of note that, in this northwest territory, the barriers that divide the waters flowing into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, from those flowing into the Gulf of Mexico, are, in many places, so faintly defined, and the sources of the respective streams so closely connected, that the old voyagers could often float in their bark canoes from one water to the other.

A bill is now before the Senate of the United States, providing for the grant of every alternate mile of a strip of land, two miles in width, upon either side of the Neenah and Wisconsin rivers, from their sources to the point of connection, for the improvement of these rivers; and in the report of the committee, it was observed, that no work of its magnitude and interest to the general government could be constructed at less expense. Not a dollar would be taken from the public treasury, and the work would progress, only as rapidly as emigration should flow into that region, and the appropriated lands taken up. The friends of the work desire no more available fund than such a grant; convinced, as they are, of the impetus it will give to emigration into that region, and the consequent ready sale of the lands. A single glance, at the mass, will convince one of the importance of the enterprise. Passing through the garden of Wisconsin, and connecting the lakes and the Mississippi by the shortest water communication, it will, of course, become the outlet for the section of the country bordering upon it, and all that vast, and as yet unfrequented region of the northern Mississippi.

It may be too much to say, that the Wisconsin route will divert trade from the Illinois canal, which, 300 miles farther south, runs parallel to it; but, while the latter depends upon a canal of 100 miles in length, a complete water communication from the east to the west is furnished by the former, with only five miles of canal; but, if it should not divert commerce from below the Illinois river, it will suffer nothing north of that river to pass eastward by any more southern route.

The construction of a national road from Fond du Lac, at the mouth of the St. Louis, to St. Peter's, at St. Anthony's falls, is another work that should be effected by the general government. The distance is only 150 miles, and the country between is said to be of the first quality for a road, connecting the extreme north and western points of navigation upon the Mississippi and Lake Superior. Such a road is much needed at the present time, as there is no communication between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi, and any part of the whole coast of Lake Superior.

The construction of harbors upon the lake coast, the extension of a railroad from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi, and the improvement of the Fox and Wisconsin, are objects of paramount importance to the people of Wisconsin, for which the aid of Congress has been repeatedly implored, and is now demanded, as some slight reparation for the infringement of her boundaries, and the violation of her vested rights. It is also demanded, as a measure of justice to the great west, whose commerce now exceeds, by nearly one quarter, the whole foreign commerce of the United States, but whose rivers have been left obstructed, and whose

lakes have been left unimproved, while, from Maine to Georgia, the whole Atlantic coast has been guarded with a watchful care, and a navy, supported at the expense of millions, ever ready to lend a helping hand to relieve from suffering or protect from danger. The west does not complain that the Atlantic coast has been properly protected, they do not even complain of the $10,000,000 spent in protection of the $200,000,000 of foreign commerce, if that amount is really needed; but they do complain of the scanty pittance doled out so grudgingly for the protection of the still greater commerce of the west. They will ever complain of that policy that wantonly sacrifices the lives and property of citizens of the west, for want of improvements effected at a few thousand dollars expense, while millions are spent in erecting splendid custom-houses, and repairing useless ships upon the Atlantic coast.

A feeling is abroad, and deeply settled in the minds of men, that the west has been unfairly dealt with; and when the power shall come to their hands, as come it surely will, in 1850, it need not create astonishment if the same measure is meted to the east that she is now so ready to give the west. Every supporter of the east, every lover of the navy, should be ready *now* to make those concessions, that will secure a favorable hearing for themselves, when "westward the star of empire takes its way." One-third part of what Wisconsin has already paid into the public treasury, would be sufficient to construct all her harbors, railroads and canals; and a moderate grant of the soil to be used for this purpose of improvement, would increase the value of the remainder of the public domain, hasten its sale, and benefit the people of Wisconsin incalculably, without detracting a dollar from the public wealth.

The great staples of Wisconsin, upon which she must principally depend for years to come, are the productions of her mines and fields. From the census of 1840, it is ascertained that there were then 49 smelting-houses in the territory, employing a capital of $664,600, and 220 men, and yielding 15,129,350 pounds of lead, worth about $500,000. In 1843, there were probably about 20,000,000 pounds smelted, equal to one-half of all the lead produced in the United States. The principal lead diggings are in the counties of Grant and Iowa, in the southwest corner of the territory; and the thriving towns of Mineral Point, Plattville, Dodgeville, Potosi, &c., have sprung up and derive their importance entirely from the mineral wealth in their vicinity. The largest portion of the mineral seeks a purchaser at Galena, five miles south of the present boundary; but should a railroad be constructed from any part of the Mississippi to the lake, a large proportion of this sale and exchange would be diverted to other points.

Copper, lead and silver, have been discovered upon the borders of Lake Superior, but the explorations and reports have not been sufficiently extensive and accurate, to allow us, at this time, to judge with certainty of their real importance; nor would it be for the interest of those engaged in the search for minerals, to allure thither by flattering reports, competition from their companions, or opposition from government. It is, however, known that the copper mines of Wisconsin average about 21, 10-100ths of pure metal, while the famous mines of Cornwall, England, average only about 10 per cent. Mineral Point, alone, during the past year, yielded $11,000 worth of pure copper. About the falls of the Chippewa, virgin copper has been found; and thence, up that stream, indications of

the ore have been discovered that promise to make that region valuable for its ores as well as its lumber. In the vicinity of La Pointe, there is a group of islands, upon a number of which large copper mines have been discovered. Isle Royal, an island 40 miles long, in the northwest of Lake Superior, is also rich in her mines. Upon the St. Louis, above the falls, both virgin copper and the ore abound, in the vicinity of an inexhaustible water power, and where every convenience for smelting is easily obtained.

Numerous mounds, apparently of iron ore, from 100 to 300 feet in height, exist in the neighborhood of the Black river falls, and of the best water power; and the product of these mines is capable of an easy transportation to the interior of the territory.

There is an abundance of limestone, and excellent clay for bricks throughout the whole territory, generally burning to a yellowish white, very much resembling the Bristol brick. Between the Black and the Chippewa rivers, large quantities of quartz formation are found, so connected with flint as to cut glass, and, by experienced millers, pronounced capable of making Burr millstones equal to any imported from France. Jasper, cornelian, agate and sardonyx, have been discovered in the territory. The census of 1840, showed that 1 in every 38 of the population of Wisconsin, were engaged in mining, though the mineral resources are but partially developed, while the average proportion in the rest of the United States was as 1 to 1,122.

The statistics of agriculture, derived from the census of 1840, are extremely meagre, and based upon a population hardly one-third of the present, cannot be relied upon as giving any accurate idea of the present resources of the territory. It exhibits, however, the following returns:—

Horses and mules,.....No.	5,735	Wheat,.....bush.	212,116
Neat cattle,.....	30,269	Barley,.....	11,062
Sheep,.....	3,462	Oats,.....	406,514
Swine,.....	51,383	Rye,.....	1,965
Poultry,.....Value in dollars	16,157	Buckwheat,.....	10,654
Wool,.....lbs.	6,777	Corn,.....	379,359
Hops,.....	133	Potatoes,.....	419,608
Wax,.....	1,474	Hay,.....tons	30,938
Sugar, (maple,).....	135,288	Wood,.....cords	22,910
Ginseng,.....	3,562	Dairy,.....Value in dollars	35,677

The culture of tobacco has been recently undertaken by the farmers of Rock river valley, with flattering prospects of success. The raising of hemp is also receiving attention; and from present indications, and the adaptedness of the soil to their culture, we may reasonably conclude that in a few years Wisconsin will become a great exporter of these two valuable articles.

Wool raising is also a prominent object of attention, and the time is not distant when the west must engross the markets of the east with this commodity. The number of sheep has rapidly increased throughout the territory, and in Racine county, alone, there are probably more now than in the whole territory in 1840. For eight months in the year, millions of sheep may be kept, without let or hindrance, upon the prairies; and the curing of the same grass, upon which they feed in summer, constitutes the only expense attendant upon their keeping in the winter. It is generally estimated, that the increase of the flock will fully pay all the expenses of keeping. From almost every part of the territory, the expense

of transporting wool to the manufactories of Lowell, cannot exceed three cents per pound. With this only drawback to all the other facilities of the west, it is evident that the eastern wool grower cannot long compete with the cheaper product of the west.

But it is in the raising of wheat that Wisconsin, for years to come, will derive a large portion of her wealth. There can be no better soil upon the face of the earth, for that grain, than the oak openings that are scattered profusely over her surface. The amount she is able to export, after supplying the wants of the tens of thousands who have recently entered her borders, affords some intimation of its capacity, when all her tillable lands are occupied, and her army of consumers turned producers. The two counties of Racine and Walworth, twenty-four miles square each, probably raised twice as much wheat in 1843, as was produced by the whole territory in 1840. The soil of the openings is generally preferred to that of the prairies, for wheat; and one reason alleged, is, that the greater fertility of the prairies gives to the wheat stalk too rapid growth, rendering it liable to rust. This is obviated by frequent tillage. For every other production of a northern climate, the prairies are exceedingly adapted; and, for years to come, their fertility will be scarcely impaired by the repeated annual drafts to which they are subjected.

Considerable quantities of pork and beef are prepared in the territory for an eastern market, and these articles will, of course, increase with the age of the country. Several lard oil manufactories are in process of erection, and any amount can be produced that the market shall warrant.

In 1840, there were ships and vessels, owned in Wisconsin, only to the amount of $7,159; commercial houses 7, capital $6,300; retail grocers 178, capital $661,550; lumber-yards 14, capital $21,180; and $202,239 worth of lumber was produced in the territory. There were also returned $124,776 worth of furs and skins, as the product of the year 1839; a quantity undoubtedly below the real amount, as in this department accuracy at any time cannot be expected, the hunters scattered throughout the wilderness making their market wherever a good or evil fortune may chance to throw them.

The statistics of manufactures are even less satisfactory than the others. Of all factories there were 11; value of articles, $11,800; capital, $17,002. Bricks were manufactured to the value of $6,527; capital, $4,355. Value of the tanneries, $150; hats, $61. Soap and candles, 64,317 lbs.; tallow candles, 11,909 lbs. Distilleries, 3; gallons produced, 8,300. Breweries, 3; gallons produced, 14,200. Flouring-mills, 4; barrels of flour, 9,000. Grist-mills, 29; saw-mills, 124. Printing-offices, 6; weekly papers, 6; capital, $10,300.

These are but the faint beginnings of those interests, that, ere long, must elevate Wisconsin to a lofty rank among the manufacturing states. Her water power is immense, capable of affording a motive power for all the manufactories of the world; her valuable mines are spread over her entire surface, far exceeding those of any other state; her wheat-fields yield almost spontaneously; wool will soon become one of the greatest, if not the greatest, of her agricultural staples; cotton may be brought to her western border from some of the cotton-growing states, with greater facility than it can be transported to New Orleans. The railroads and other improvements that, in course of time, will be constructed, whether

Congress lend a helping hand, or not, will scatter this material over her entire surface, greater, by one-half, than all New England.

With all these facilities, Wisconsin lacks only *capital*, without which, the greatest natural advantages are useless, to become a dangerous rival to the manufacturing states of the east, and even of the old world; and capital can only find its way, by easy and hesitating steps, into the wilderness of a new country.

The timber of Wisconsin consists of white, yellow and Norway pine, rock and soft maple, nearly all the varieties of oak, balsam, fir, white and red cedar, spruce, hemlock, lynn, aspen, white, black and yellow birch, ash, poplar, basswood, walnut, hickory, tamerack, wild plum, cherry, &c. But few species of the genus *pinus*, are found in the extreme southern part; there is some cedar, and occasionally a tamerack swamp. The more northern portion abounds in those varieties, most essential to the use of man; and such is the situation of the country, that nearly all parts of it may be supplied with pine lumber, at a moderate expense. From Green bay, Sheboyagau and Manitowoc, large quantities of pine are shipped to Milwaukie, Racine, Southport and Chicago, and retailed at an average price of $10 per thousand. Throughout the northern parts of Michigan and Wisconsin, the pine forests are immense; and for many years to come the price will diminish, rather than increase, as capital is more and more diverted to the pineries. At Southport, Racine and Milwaukie, from 12,000,000 to 15,000,000 feet of lumber, and from 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 of shingles, have been sold the past year. From the valuable pineries upon the banks of the Pipe, the Black, the Chippewa and the Wisconsin rivers, are rafted down large quantities of lumber to the Mississippi markets. By the estimate of Mr. Brunson, these rivers have yielded 15,000,000 feet the past year, and their capacity can be increased to any desired extent.

The fisheries of Wisconsin are not unworthy of notice. In the very heart of the North American continent, thousands of miles from the scene of the labors of the hardy Cape Cod and Nantucket men, a trade is springing up that will banish their commodities from the west. In the year 1840, 9,021 barrels of pickled fish were cured, and 1,500 gallons of fish-oil produced in the territory. Since that time, the business has been increasing, and large quantities of white fish, a fish peculiar to the lakes, are sold in the markets adjoining the lakes. Besides, there are found in abundance, the Mackinaw trout, by many preferred to the brook trout, the sturgeon, salmon-trout, muskelunge, a species of pike frequenting the rivers, and often caught from four to six feet in length, pickerel, perch, herring, rock-bass, white and black bass, cat-fish, trout, gar and mullet.

The uninhabited parts of Wisconsin abound in nearly the same species of game and wild animals, that are found in all the new northwestern states. Elk, deer, moose, beaver, bear, gray, black and prairie wolves, wild cat, panther, rackoon, porcupine, martin, fox, squirrel, opossum, lynx, muskrat, weasle, gopher and black, or prairie hens, which are found in large quantities upon the prairies, and in the neighborhood of the cultivated fields.

The census of 1840, when the population of the territory was 30,000, exhibited the following returns as to the number engaged in some of the principal employments: in mining, 794; agriculture, 7,047; commerce, 479; manufactures and trades, 1,814; navigation, 209; learned profes-

sions, 259; showing a greater proportion of the whole population engaged in mining, navigation and the learned professions, than in any other of the states or territories; and, except Louisiana, a larger proportion engaged in commerce. These same proportions probably hold good to the present time.

The interests of education have not been neglected in this new land. A majority of its inhabitants, coming from New England and New York, bring with them, not only the rudiments of education, but a love for the institutions left behind; and though the sparseness of the population prevents them from at present reaping the same practical benefits, yet, there is a system of common schools established, that, with some revision, will, in time, work the same happy results as in the older states. As in all the new states, every sixteenth section in a township, is set apart, by the general government, for the single purpose of supporting free schools; and when we become a state, this fund will be applied to its object, as the collective wisdom of the legislature shall prescribe. There has also been appropriated by Congress, 46,000 acres of land for the establishment of a university. During the several past years, nearly all of this land has been located by committee's, or agents of the legislature, in detached parcels, and must, therefore, constitute a valuable and rapidly increasing fund. In all the considerable towns and villages, academies and high schools are established; and the tone of education and morality will compare favorably with the favored regions, whence the mass of the population sprung.

Notwithstanding she has been shorn of her territory, upon either side, when she enters the confederacy, Wisconsin will enter it with the most extended domain of any state in the Union; and, except a few thousand dollars, improvidently expended by her legislature for legislative expenses, over and above the general appropriation, she will enter it free from that scourge of republics, a public debt. The example of some of the neighboring states, so lately and narrowly upon the verge of bankruptcy, will deter her from launching, unaided, into schemes of public improvement, (presenting, indeed, to the fancy, brilliant prospects of success,) before the means shall be secured, and the way of payment clearly pointed out. By an act of the late legislature, the question of forming a state government is to be formally submitted to the people, at the coming fall election; and if a majority are in favor of that measure, the governor is authorized to call a convention to form the constitution. It is believed that, at the present time, a majority of the people are in favor of putting off territorial bondage, and seeking immediate admission into the Union.

The enlargement of the Welland canal, will be an important measure for the interests of Wisconsin. Aided by the Ericson propeller, which is expected to work a new era in the commerce of the lakes, we may confidently anticipate the time when a direct trade in lead, copper, wool and wheat, will be opened between the ports of Lake Michigan, and those of the Atlantic coast, and the products of the west, relieved from the transhipments, to which they are now subject, in their passage to the east.

And, finally, over and around all these elements of wealth, that Wisconsin possesses, health throws her blessed shield. Her prairies and her openings, yield no noxious vapors, and her mines breathe no deadly pestilence. Here are none of those prevailing diseases incident to the south, the east and other parts of the west. The emigrant may rest as-

sured that, while the earth yields him her increase almost spontaneously, and nature showers her bounties with a prolific hand, health will brighten his cheek, and strength nerve his arm. From those diseases, whose periodical visitation to some parts of the west, make the privations of a new country doubly irksome and gloomy, he will be comparatively exempt; and if he continues to rely upon, and exercise his own energies, and avoid that bane of a fertile country, idleness, he may be assured that no portion of this Union can offer him surer prospects of future wealth, or more permanent advantages for himself and his descendants.

Art. V.—PROGRESS OF INVENTION AND MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES.

The Annual Report of Mr. Ellsworth, the Commissioner of Patents, for the year 1843, is a document of great interest, embracing, as it does, a large amount of information on subjects connected with the progress of the arts, manufactures, agriculture and the general resources of the country. We propose, in the present article, to exhibit a few of the facts and statements of the report, in a concise and comprehensive form, as they fall within the design of this Magazine. From this report, we learn that five hundred and thirty-one patents were issued during the year 1843, including eleven reissues, fourteen designs, and two additional improvements to former patents. During the same period, four hundred and forty-six patents expired. The applications for patents, during the year 1843, amounted to eight hundred and nineteen; and the number of caveats filed, three hundred and fifteen. The receipts of the office, for 1843, amounted to $35,315 81; from which are to be deducted, repaid, on applications withdrawn, $5,026 66. The ordinary expenses of the patent-office, for the past year, including payments for the library, and for agricultural statistics, were $24,750 30, leaving a net balance of $4,538 85 to be accredited to the patent fund. The whole number of patents issued by the United States, up to January, 1844, was 13,523. The patents granted for the year 1843, exceeded those of the previous year by twenty-four, and the excess of applications amounted to fifty-eight.

The rapid improvement of the arts, may help to account for the reduction of price, as to many articles of manufacture, and especially in some that are usually ranked among the necessaries of life. Shirtings, for instance, which cost, thirty years ago, sixty-two cents per yard, is now bought for eleven or twelve cents, and equally as good.

Hosiery is now made in the United States with astonishing rapidity, by the aid of the power weaving loom, an American invention, which has not yet been introduced into England. While, there, it is a full day's work to knit by hand two pairs of drawers, a girl, here, at $2 50 per week, will make, by the power-loom, twenty pairs in the same time. A piece, twenty-eight inches in width, and one inch long, can be knit in one minute, thus reducing the expense of manufacturing this article one-tenth of the former method by the hand-looms. The importance of this improvement may be estimated from the fact, that the quantity of hosiery used in the United States is valued at $2,500,000; and the stockings, woven shirts and drawers, made in this country, at $500,000.

Hooks and eyes is another illustration of the progress of inventive industry. Thirty years ago, the price was $1 50 per gross; now, the same quantity may be purchased, from fifteen to twenty cents. At one establishment in New Britain, Connecticut, 80,000 to 100,000 pairs per day are made and plated by a galvanic battery, on the cold-silver process. The value of this article, consumed annually in the United States, is estimated at $750,000.

Horseshoes furnishes a similar proof of the bearing of the progress of inventions. An improved kind of horseshoes, made at Troy, New York, for some time past, is now sold at the price of only five cents per pound, ready prepared, to be used in shoeing the animal. At a factory, recently erected, fifty tons of these are now turned out, per day; and, it is believed, they can be made and sent to Europe at as good a profit as is derived from American clocks, which have handsomely remunerated the exporter.

Leather.—The improvement in the manufacture and making up this article, has also greatly reduced the price of shoes. By further inventions to render leather water-proof, likewise, much has been done to protect the health, and promote economy. "Those who have not turned their attention to this subject, may be surprised to learn that leather, made water-proof in the best manner, will last at least one-third longer than other kinds." Allowing, therefore, $3 per head for each person in the United States, for shoes, the cost of the whole article in the country would be $50,000,000, one-third of which, sold, would be over $16,000,000.

Sugar.—By a process of sugar-making, invented by Professor Mapes, at the sugar-works of Messrs. Tyler and Mapes, 15,000 to 20,000 pounds of sugar are manufactured per day, from common West India molasses, and generally of a quality superior to that made from the cane in Louisiana. Molasses, which has become sour, is often used for this purpose with good effect.

Pins.—The progress made in the United States, in the manufacture of this article of universal use, within a few years, is truly astonishing. A manufactory, near Derby, Connecticut, has a contrivance for sticking pins in paper which is quite marvellous. It takes, in England, sixty females to stick in one day, by sunlight, ninety packs, consisting of 302,460 pins. The same operation is performed here, in the same time, by one woman. Her sole occupation is to pour them, a gallon at a time, into a hopper, from whence they come out all neatly arranged upon their several papers. The mechanism, by which the labor of fifty-nine persons is daily saved, yet remains a mystery to all but the inventor; and no person, but the single woman who attends to it, is, upon any pretext whatever, allowed to enter the room where it operates.

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* Professor Mapes, is now taking patents in this country and abroad, for a new evaporation, and some other improvements connected with sugar-making and sugar-refining. It is calculated to effect a great change in the whole system of sugar-making, in Louisiana and the West India islands.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

The press of the spring business has passed; and the city banks, having succeeded for a time in obtaining a little higher rate for their money, are now forced by the competition of private capital to give way again, and offer their money at less rates—that is, at 5 a 6 per cent. Business has been, and continues to be, exceedingly active; as indicated in the universal increase of the tolls and revenue of governments and companies. The quantities of produce in the interior of the country, coming forward to market, have been, and are large. The supply of goods in the cities, both imported and manufactured, is extensive; so much so, that, in the early part of the spring season, there was an evident tendency in prices to fall. This fact induced a greater anxiety to sell; and to do so, more liberal terms of credit were extended, which had the effect of inducing purchases, on the part of dealers coming to the city, to a greater extent than they had previously been calculated upon; and, of course, to swell the general amount of business done. The progress of imports into the port of New York is seen in the following table of revenue for the first four months of the two last years:—

REVENUE OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.
January,.....	$548,046	$1,876,615	$1,328,559
February,.....	492,216	1,169,110	1,676,894
March,.....	936,596	1,691,000	754,404
April,.....	1,033,263	1,890,626	857,367
Total,.....	$3,010,125	$7,627,351	$4,617,226

The same ratio of tariff charges being in operation this year and last, and the average rate on dutiable goods being 35 per cent, it follows that the dutiable imports last year amounted to $8,600,000, and this year to $21,800,000—an increase in amount of $13,200,000. The effect of this has been felt in the market for foreign bills; the rate of which has been, for the packets, firm at 9 per cent sterling, with an upward tendency; and inducing the belief that shipments of at least from $3,000,000 to $4,000,000 will be made to Europe before the bills drawn against the new crop shall be realized in sufficient amounts to supply the market.

The rates of inland bills are low, and very uniform; but are now showing a tendency to turn in favor of New York from those extreme points of the south to which, for the last eighteen months, specie has been constantly flowing. The rates of domestic bills, as compared with some former dates, have been as follows:—

RATES OF DOMESTIC BILLS IN NEW YORK.

	1843.		1843.	1844.
	February.	May.	March.	May.
Boston,.....	¼ a ⅜	par a ¼	par a ⅛	⅛ a ¼
Philadelphia,.....	7 a 8¼	par a ⅛	par a ⅛	⅛ a ¼
Baltimore,.....	⅜ a 3	⅛ a ¼	par a ⅛	⅛ a ¼
Virginia,.....	9 a 12½	2½ a 3	1 a 1⅛	¾ a 1¼
North Carolina,.....	5¼ a 5½	3¼ a 3½	1¼ a 1¾	1¼ a 1½
Charleston,.....	1½ a 1¾	1½ a 1¾	¼ a ⅜	½ a ¾
Savannah,.....	2½ a 3	1¾ a 2	¼ a ⅜	½ a ¾
Mobile,.....	12½ a 13	29 a 30	17 a 18	12 a 15
New Orleans,.....	6½ a 7	1 a 2	1 a 1½ pr.	½ a ¾
Nashville,.....	14 a 14½	12½ a 15	3 a 3¼ dis.	2 a 2½
Louisville,.....	9½ a 10	3½ a 4	¼ a 1¼	1 a 1½
St. Louis,.....	13 a 14	4 a 5	1½ a 2	1¼ a 1½
Cincinnati,.....	15 a 16	4 a 5	1 a 1½	1¼ a 1½
Mobile, specie,.....	... a ...	. a .	1¼ a 1½ pr.	½ a ¾

The quotations in February, 1842, are in the local currencies furnished at that period by the suspended banks, as is now the quotation on Mobile. At all other points, the uniform currency of the constitution has resumed its functions, and exchanges are uniform and equal—at some points, lower than they ever before retained for any length of time. The amount of bills supplied by the surplus products shipped from any one section, fully equals the demand for the payment of goods imported into that section. The individual brokers, standing between the sellers and buyers of the bills, transact the business for the difference of ⅛ a ¼ per cent, and the utmost uniformity must be preserved. When, however, a bank at a particular section lends money or credits to individuals, to buy goods, beyond what the proceeds of the crops will pay for, that institution must actually send the money to pay for the goods, because there are not bills sufficient to transmit. If she has not the dollars to send, the exchanges are, of course, deranged. If banks lend money at all, it is for this purpose. When the banks of the south and west resumed specie payments, a large amount of bank capital was put in liquidation, and the credits withdrawn from circulation. Immediately an immense flow of specie commenced to those points, to supply the vacuum thus created. This has continued up to the present time; when the abundance of specie, and the state of the exchanges at those points, evince the approach of a turn in the market, and that specie will again come to this point. This movement is seen in the following table of the circulation and specie in the New Orleans banks at certain periods, and the amount of specie which had arrived at that point from September, 1842, when the influx commenced:—

CIRCULATION AND SPECIE OF THE NEW ORLEANS BANKS, WITH THE AMOUNT OF SPECIE RECEIVED FROM SEPTEMBER 1, TO THE CLOSE OF EACH PERIOD.

	Circulation.	Specie.	Sterling bills—New York sight.	Receipts of specie from Sept. 1, 1842.
October, 1842,....	$1,679,039	$1,504,661	par a 2 prem.	.....
February, 1843,...	1,507,410	4,100,449	2½ a 3 "	$5,257,726
June, 1843,.....	1,854,000	6,301,415	7½ a 8 "	9,347,644
September, 1843,.	1,248,652	5,858,857	7½ a 8¼ "	10,395,130
March, 1844,.....	2,678,840	8,555,391	5½ a 6 "	13,447,493
May, 1844,.....	3,023,378	9,918,052	8½—¼ per cent.	17,407,265

The receipts are, it appears, over $17,000,000, and a large proportion of it passed into circulation. With the amounts received at Mobile, the whole sum will be near $22,000,000. Up the valley of the Mississippi, and through the Southern states, specie is become exceedingly abundant, and bills rising with the approaching close of the crop season, when travellers and dealers commence coming north. The stocks of cotton held there are still large, and in the channels of circulation there are but few treasury notes, or other floating paper usually used in exchange operations; so that there is every indication that specie will come forward, to the extent of some millions. Since last year, at this time, near $9,000,000 of treasury notes, now used for exchange purposes, have been withdrawn by the government; and that fact will give a greater activity to specie. When business is stagnant, and money is flowing towards any given point, it is always the case that more is received than is actually wanted, because it is not so active as a healthy state of business requires. When, however, business begins to move, and money changes hands rapidly, the surplus quantity flows off to some other point. During the last two years, this has been the case all over the commercial world. The same features apparent in the above banks of New Orleans, are evinced not only by all the banks in this country, but by the leading institutions in Europe. This is seen in the following table of the amount of specie, at different periods, in several banks—all reduced to dollars.

SPECIE IN THE VAULTS OF THE BANK OF FRANCE, BANK OF ENGLAND, BANKS OF NEW YORK, NEW ORLEANS, SOUTH CAROLINA, AND OHIO.

Banks of	1842. January.	July.	1843. January.	August.	1844. April.
England,.....	$26,010,000	$30,095,000	$54,665,000	$59,360,000	$81,610,000
France,.....	41,230,000	39,732,964	43,182,000	46,355,625	52,500,000
New York,.	4,074,601	3,976,328	6,174,317	12,965,966	11,200,000
N. Orleans,.	1,741,526	1,208,455	4,586,737	5,864,019	9,918,052
S. Carolina,.	857,649	810,640	817,131	1,171,689	973,318
Ohio,.....	1,018,611	873,210	524,096	688,543	774,689
Total,...	$74,931,787	$76,696,597	$109,949,181	$126,405,820	$156,976,056

This presents a singular result, evincing the fact that the same general causes have influenced the state of business throughout the commercial world; and that the outstanding credits, which were created by the process of expansion emanating from London in 1831–32, have been nearly settled up; that the stagnation and distress caused by the fall of property, incident upon the withdrawal of those credits, is giving place to renewed activity in all the branches of trade and channels of intercourse, both in this country and in Europe. The products of industry, both agricultural and manufactured, are becoming exchanged with a constantly increasing degree of animation. The indications of this improving business are found in the returns of the public works for the four months ending May 1st, this year and last, as follows:—

RECEIPTS OF PUBLIC WORKS, FROM JANUARY TO MAY.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.
Reading Railroad, 3 months,.....	$44,445	$85,547	$41,102
Michigan Central, 4 months,.....	21,997	56,378	34,380
Norwich and Worcester, 4 months,.....	32,788	58,231	25,443
Syracuse and Utica, 4 months,.....	23,373	37,186	13,812
Utica and Schenectady, 4 months,.....	46,108	59,763	13,655
Western Railroad, 4 months,.....	129,519	171,150	45,633
Kentucky Slackwater, 4 months,.....	1,125	5,394	4,269
Total, seven works,.....	$299,353	$473,649	$174,296

This rate of increase, which is 60 per cent, is common to the public works in all sections of the country. The great canals, also, the Erie, of New York, the Wabash and Erie of Indiana, and the Ohio canal, all evince, since the opening of navigation, a great increase. This fact of improved trade, is rapidly giving value to most of the stocks of those works which, heretofore, have paid no dividend; and speculation, promoted by the great abundance of money, has assisted to send the prices of all very high. The following table, will show the degree, to which this advance has taken place:—

PRICES OF LEADING STOCKS IN NEW YORK.

	February 3.	April 11.	May 20.
United States 6's, 1862,.....	113⅜ a 113¾	113 a 113½	114 a 115
Ohio 6's, 1860,.....	97⅜ a 98	94 a 94½	99 a 99½
Kentucky 6's,.....	101¼ a ...	101 a ...	103¼ a 104
Pennsylvania 5's,.....	64 a 65	65 a 66	76 a 77
Illinois Sp. bonds,.....	40¼ a 41	39 a 40	45½ a 46
Vicksburgh Bank,.....	8 a 8¼	9 a 9½	9 a 9½
North Am. Trust Co.,.....	15 a ...	14 a 14⅛	14 a 14¼
Farmers' Trust Co.,.....	31½ a 32	39 a 40	41 a 41½
Canton Company,.....	29¾ a ...	37 a 37½	59 a 59½
Paterson Railroad,.....	73 a 73½	74 a 74½	83 a 84
Harlem Railroad,.....	43¼ a 43½	65 a 65½	83 a 84
Stonington Railroad,.....	33½ a ...	39 a 40	48 a 48½
Mohawk Railroad,.....	51⅛ a ...	62 a 63	75 a 75½
Nor. and W. Railroad,.....	34¾ a 35	43 a 44	65½ a 66
Long Island Railroad,.....	69 a 70	70 a 71	80 a 81

This gives a great and rapid advance in most of the railroads, which have been a source of immense profit to most of the present holders of the stocks. When the prices fell very low, the majority of the stock passed into the hands of men of large capital, by whom the affairs of the roads were placed upon an efficient and economical footing; and with the great increase which has taken place in travel, and the regular business of the country, the receipts have swollen in the degree indicated in the above table, and many roads which never before paid dividends, will now, in all probability, realize that result.

In consequence of these things, speculation is taking the direction of railroads very rapidly. In a former number, we mentioned the fact, that the directors of the Erie railroad had applied to the common council to procure, through their aid, a loan of $3,000,000, from the city, to make up $6,000,000 to complete the Erie railroad, on condition that the other $3,000,000 should be subscribed by individuals. This application was rejected by the common council, and subsequently, proposals were issued by the directors for a subscription of the whole amount, $6,000,000, on the condition that the whole of the new stock should have a prior right over that of the old, that is, that out of the joint net earnings of the road, a dividend of 6 per cent should be declared on the new stock, and the surplus, if any remains, to be divided on the old stock. This gives the new stock, all the benefit of the former outlay of $4,500,000. This subscription has gone on very well, thus far, and already some $1,000,000 has been subscribed by citizens at large, who anticipate great advantages from laying open to the command of the city, the hitherto untouched southern tier of counties, and of commanding the lake trade now, for some weeks earlier in the spring, than the canal is usually navigable. In order to estimate, in some degree, the advantages of the local business to be derived from this road, we will take a comparative table of the population, in 1830 and in 1840, of the counties through which it passes, and similar statements of the population of those counties, cut through by the Erie canal and the northern line of railroads. The Erie canal, commenced in 1824, and we have, therefore, given the population of those counties, at that period, and at two subsequent ones. We may remark, that the population for 1825, is that of the state census, and the others of the United States census.

POPULATION OF THE CANAL COUNTIES AT THREE PERIODS, AND OF THOSE COUNTIES THROUGH WHICH THE ERIE RAILROAD IS TO RUN.

Erie Railroad Counties.	1830.	1840.	*Canal Counties.*	1825.	1830.	1840.
Chautauque,	34,617	49,975	Niagara,	14,069	18,485	31,132
Cattaraugus,	16,726	28,872	Orleans,	14,460	18,779	25,132
Alleghany,	26,218	40,975	Monroe,	39,108	49,862	64,902
Steuben,	33,975	46,138	Wayne,	26,761	33,555	42,057
Tioga,	27,704	20,527	Cayuga,	42,743	47,947	50,338
Broome,	17,582	22,233	Onondaga,	48,435	58,974	67,911
Delaware,	32,933	35,396	Madison,	35,646	39,037	40,008
Sullivan,	12,372	15,629	Oneida,	57,847	71,326	85,310
Orange,	45,372	50,739	Herkimer,	33,640	35,869	37,477
Rockland,	9,388	11,975	Montgomery,	39,706	43,595	35,818
			Albany,	42,821	53,560	68,593
Total,	256,927	320,604		394,636	470,983	548,673

The Erie railroad has now to pass through a tier of counties, as populous as was the northern tier, in 1825, when the canal went into operation with such eminent success. Hence the revenue to be derived from the local trade, will be larger in the proportion created by the demand arising from the increased growth of the city of New York.

The road will, however, open upon a western trade, which has grown up almost entirely within the last ten years, and now affords a very large proportion of the revenues derived from the Erie canal. The following is a table, showing, from official sources, the gross amount of tolls derived alone from the Erie canal, in the last ten years, and the proportion drawn from the produce of other states, as distinguished from that gathered from the produce of this state. The tolls on produce from other states, is that, paid on produce shipped at Buffalo and Black Rock; of that, paid on merchandise going west, at Albany and Troy, is to the extent of 20 per cent on goods going to other states:—

AMOUNT OF TOLLS ON THE ERIE CANAL, FOR TEN YEARS.

Tolls.	For 5 years, ending Jan., 1839.	For 5 years, ending Jan., 1844.	Total, 10 yrs.
On produce of other states,.....	$792,359	$2,327,346	$3,119,705
" this state,.....	3,376,129	3,298,200	6,674,329
On merchandise going west,.....	2,388,037	2,661,733	5,049,770
Total,.....	$6,556,525	$8,287,279	$14,843,804

The five last years have been but of small business, in the sales of merchandise to the west, as compared with the immense credit sales of the five preceding years. Nevertheless, the tolls on merchandise, have increased in amount. The tolls on the produce of this state, it appears, probably because of the inability of the farmers of this state to compete with the prolific yield of the rich lands of the west, to advantage, and also to the fact, that the increasing density of the population of the canal counties, particularly in cities, that the consumption is rather outrunning the production. The progress of affairs, in this respect, may be seen in the following table of the population of six cities on the line of the canal:—

POPULATION OF CITIES ON THE ERIE CANAL.

	1820.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.
Albany,.....	12,630	15,971	24,238	28,109	33,721
Buffalo, incorp. in 1832,.	.....	.....	.....	15,661	18,213
Roch'ter, " 1834,.	.....	.....	.....	14,404	20,191
Schenectady,.....	3,939	4,068	4,258	6,272	6,784
Troy,.....	5,264	7,859	11,605	16,959	19,034
Utica, incorp. in 1832,...	.....	.....	.....	10,183	12,782
Total,.....	.....	.....	.....	91,588	110,725

The increase in the river counties, from 1830 to 1840, was 78,000, and the increase in their six towns was 40,376; showing that the consumers had multiplied faster than the producers. Hence all the increase that has taken place in the Erie canal tolls, has been from the western trade. The opening of the Erie railroad will form an active and dangerous competitor for that trade. It will be open earlier in the spring, by some weeks, and will in the fall always be ready to carry the produce brought to it promptly to market, without danger of its being wintered over in the interior towns, as is too often the case on the Erie canal. These are advantages which will enable it to command most of the western business; and, in addition, as much local travel as those northern railroads—the Utica, and others—which afford such profitable returns for the capital expended upon them, although hitherto not allowed to carry freight. The advantages accruing to New York are many and great, from opening an interior communication with the western part of the state all the year round, and increasing the supply of provisions and farm produce brought to the city.

The quarterly returns of the banks of the state of New York present the following results, as compared with former ones:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK STATE.

	Capital.	Loans.	Stocks.	Specie.	Bal. due b'ks.	Circulat'n.	Deposits.
Jan'ry,	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
1831,	27,555,264	57,689,704	395,809	2,657,503	4,310,936	17,820,408	19,119,338
1836,	31,281,461	72,826,111	803,159	6,224,646	3,892,314	21,127,927	20,088,685
1837,	37,101,460	79,313,188	1,794,152	6,557,020	2,630,569	24,198,000	30,883,179
1838,	36,611,460	60,999,770	2,795,207	4,139,732	2,025,292	12,460,652	15,221,860
1839,	36,801,460	68,300,486	911,623	9,355,495	1,222,158	19,373,149	18,370,044
1840,	52,028,781	67,057,067	5,464,120	7,000,529	1,031,419	14,220,304	20,051,234
1841,	51,630,280	69,230,130	6,738,000	6,536,240	1,302,000	18,456,230	20,678,279
1842,	44,310,000	56,380,073	10,291,239	5,329,857	883,099	13,949,504	17,063,774
1843,	43,950,137	52,348,467	12,446,087	8,477,076	7,771,112	12,031,871	19,100,415
August,							
1843,	43,019,577	58,593,081	12,320,987	14,091,779	10,611,940	14,520,843	24,679,230
November,							
1843,	43,369,152	61,534,129	11,665,311	11,502,789	4,941,076	17,213,101	27,387,160
February,							
1844,	43,649,887	65,418,762	11,052,458	10,086,542	5,343,347	16,335,401	29,026,415
May,							
1844,	43,462,311	70,161,068	10,362,330	9,455,161	6,650,315	18,365,031	30,742,289

The loans of the banks were never so high as now, with the exception of the two years 1836–37; and the deposits never were so high, with the exception of the year 1837. The specie in August last was, to the circulation and deposits, as 1 to 2.75. It is now as 1 to 5.50, showing a great extension of credits. The proportion in which the movement has been made by the city banks, as distinguished from those of the country, may be seen by comparing the aggregates of each, as seen in the following table of the leading features in August last, when the specie was at its greatest point of accumulation, and at the present returns. These aggregates compare as follows:—

	CITY BANKS.		COUNTRY BANKS.	
	August.	May.	August.	May.
Loans,.....	$36,514,332	$42,129,817	$22,078,749	$28,031,243
Specie,.....	12,965,944	8,485,563	1,125,835	969,598
Circulation,.....	5,308,525	5,894,438	9,212,318	12,470,573
Deposits,.....	23,475,641	25,000,757	1,193,589	5,741,532

The increase of loans, on the part of the city banks, was during the quarter ending February. Since then, the movement has been large on the part of the banks in the interior, whose loans have been increased to the extent of about $4,000,000; giving a corresponding increase of their circulation, which has been exceedingly abundant in the city since the opening of navigation, and the rates of discount increased to ½ per cent. The loans of the city banks, during the last quarter, have not materially increased, the movement having been on the part of the country banks, whose facilities, at this time of year, are in demand from the dealers, to buy goods in the city. To this fact may be attributed much of the improvement which has taken place in the spring trade, enabling the city dealers to support the prices of goods, and avoid the losses which the state of affairs at the opening of the spring business promised.

It is also observable that the nature of the paper afloat, being mostly of a short business character, is conducive to the continuance of an abundance of money. It is only when the paper discounted becomes of unusual length, and the number of borrowers on that description of paper large, that the value of money can become enhanced. It has generally been found, in the operations of the banks of England and France, that the most effectual way of easing the market is to reduce the length of the paper admissable to discount. This immediately makes money more active, and gives a greater degree of flexibility to floating credits, bringing them more under the command of the bank.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

CREDITOR'S BILL.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, holden at Boston. William W. Crease, *et al.*, in Equity, *vs.* Samuel H. Babcock, *et al.* Judge Shaw presiding.

This was a creditor's bill against the defendants, as stockholders of the Chelsea bank, in which the rights of the billholders to charge the stockholders, under the 31st section 36th chapter of the revised statutes, was sought to be enforced. The plaintiffs claimed, among other things, a joint judgment against all the stockholders; so that, in case of insolvency, or absence from the jurisdiction of either of them, payment of the bills, by solvent stockholders, within the commonwealth, would be insured; and they relied upon the provision of the 32d and 33d sections, which give a remedy among the stockholders, when any one shall have been obliged to pay debt or demand, to recover a proportional part of the other stockholders, as indicating that intention in the legislature.

Shaw, chief justice, delivered the opinion of the Court, that the respondents were not jointly liable; and could not, by any form of judgment, be made liable for each other. Ordinarily, when persons are jointly liable, it is because, as between them and the creditor, each is liable, *in solido*, for the whole amount. There is, therefore, no injustice in requiring either of them to pay the whole amount, leaving him to obtain redress amongst his co-debtors as he can. But in the present case, the liability is created by statute, and is in its nature several. The property in respect to which the liability is created, namely: the shares in the bank, is separate property. So far as the stockholder is owner, he is sole owner. Again, the statute declares that holders of stock shall be liable in their individual capacities for the payment and redemption of all unpaid bills, and in proportion to the stock they may respectively hold, at the dissolution of the charter. The term respectively, indicating the different proportions in which they may hold, indicates also the different proportions for which they may be holden, and as clearly indicates a several liability.

It follows, as a necessary consequence from this view, that no stockholder, who was such at the time of the expiration of the charter, can be responsible beyond a sum equal to the nominal par value of his stock at the time of such expiration; that is, beyond the amount of $100 for each share so held, although the aggregate amount of the liability of the parties so chargeable should be insufficient to satisfy the whole amount of the claims of the billholders.

The fact that some of the stockholders are without the jurisdiction of the Court, or that some of them are insolvent, or discharged under proceedings in bankruptcy, is the ordinary misfortune of a creditor, whose debt cannot be made available. But it cannot enlarge or alter the liability of another party, who, to a limited extent, is responsible for the same debt.

The Court were therefore of opinion that the respective respondents are severally liable, to an amount not exceeding the number of shares held by them respectively, at $100 per share, to the whole amount, if necessary, to satisfy the amount of outstanding bills; otherwise, to an amount sufficient to redeem and pay all such unpaid bills; but they are not liable for a greater sum, although the aggregate of all such liabilities should prove insufficient to pay the whole amount of such bills.

TAX ON PASSENGERS IN LOUISIANA.

In the Supreme Court of Louisiana, Judge Bullard pronounced a judgment in the case of the Charity Hospital *vs.* Fullerton, by which it is decided that, although the state

legislature has an undoubted right to impose a tax on every passenger coming to New Orleans, toward the support of the Charity Hospital, yet the law cannot oblige the captain of the ship in which he arrives to collect it, and that he is not answerable for an evasion of the contribution by his passengers, nor liable to penalty for not coercing them by seizing their baggage. The only legal way to recover the payment of the tax so evaded, is by direct action at law.

PROMISSORY NOTE.

Supreme Court of Louisiana. Reeder *vs.* Theurer. Judge Martin on the bench.

Judge Martin—The defendant is appellant from a judgment on his promissory note, the payment of which he resisted on an allegation that the note had been divided into four others. It appears, by an endorsement on the back of the note, that the plaintiff had received from the defendant, after the maturity of the note, four smaller ones, amounting together to the sum due on that sued on, which the plaintiff declared would be, when paid, in full of the original note. This endorsement certainly precluded the plaintiff from suing on the original note, without tendering the four smaller ones. But he was not obliged, as the defendant states, in his answer, to institute a suit on the smaller notes, or on any of them. Had the latter, instead of urging the plaintiff's obligation to do so, demanded that judgment should not be given against him, or that its execution should be suspended until the four small notes were returned to him, he might, perhaps, have claimed at our hands the costs of the suit in the parish court. That court ought, however, in our opinion, to have protected him from the danger of being sued by the endorsees of the plaintiff on the small notes. He is entitled to this relief at our hands, and it is our duty to amend the judgment in this respect. For aught that appears on the record, these notes may be afloat.

It is therefore ordered that the judgment be affirmed, with this amendment, to wit: that no execution shall issue thereon, nor shall the judgment be recorded in the office of mortgages, until the four smaller notes, enumerated on the back of the original one, shall have been delivered to the defendant, or deposited for him, duly cancelled, in the office of the clerk of the parish court. The costs of the appeal to be paid by the plaintiff and appellee.

ACTION UPON A GUARANTY.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, Boston. Thomas Courtis *vs.* Bowman W. Dennis. Judge Hubbard presiding.

This was an action upon a guaranty in the following words:—"Know all men, by these presents, that I, Bowman W. Dennis, of Cambridgeport, in consideration of one dollar, to me paid by Courtis & Morse, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged, do hereby guarantee to said Courtis & Morse the payment of one-half of any loss which may accrue in the business of my brother, Selah G. Dennis, during such time as he may be connected with them in business.

"Boston, September 23d, 1840."

Of the same date, an agreement was made by Courtis & Morse, of one part, and Selah of the other part, whereby it was covenanted that the parties should enter into a copartnership for two years. Courtis & Morse were to supply goods to Selah, who was to open and carry on a store in Bangor, for the benefit of both parties, and they were to share equally all profit and loss, and, at the close of the term, to divide the property; and each party was to secure the balance he might owe to the satisfaction of the party who was entitled to it.

About two months after the date of the agreement, Courtis & Morse dissolved their copartnership; and at that time Selah had received of them, in pursuance of the partnership agreement, about $—— worth of goods, and had transmitted about $—— in

cash to Courtis & Morse; and the balance of their account against Selah amounted to about $4,500.

At the trial, evidence was offered to show the amount of this balance, as a claim covered by the guaranty; but it was objected to, and held inadmissible.

No notice to the guarantor of the acceptance of his guaranty, or of the amount for which he was held liable, and no demand on him before bringing action being proved, the defendant contended that the plaintiff was not entitled to recover in this action; and the presiding judge ruled accordingly, and the case was carried, by agreement, before the full court, for their opinion on these points.

Judge Hubbard—The guaranty must be construed according to the fair and obvious meaning of the words. The construction, where the language is doubtful, is not to be taken strongly against the guarantor, as it is against the granter, in deeds of land; but the true intention of the parties is to be ascertained. This guaranty, taken in connection with the partnership agreement, obviously was intended only to cover the losses of the three, Courtis, Morse & Dennis, under that agreement, (as losses by bad debts, depreciation of goods, &c.,) and was not intended to secure any balance which might be due from Selah to Courtis & Morse, on winding up the concern; nor any sums he might owe them individually.

The guarantor was also entitled to notice of the amount for which he was held liable, as that amount was uncertain, and the guarantor had no other means of ascertaining his liability except from Courtis & Morse.

The guarantor was also entitled to have a demand made on him of the amount claimed of him before suit, and within reasonable time after such amount was ascertained, and that bringing an action was not a sufficient demand or notice. According to the agreement of parties, a new trial was to be had, to give the plaintiff an opportunity to prove a partnership loss, if there were any, and notice and demand, if any had been made or given, and to let the defendant into any defences mentioned in his specification of defence.

MASSACHUSETTS LAW OF INSURANCE ON LIVES, FOR THE BENEFIT OF MARRIED WOMEN, ETC.

The following are the provisions of an act passed at the last session of the legislature of Massachusetts, and approved by the governor, March 11, 1844:—

"1. Any policy of insurance, made by any insurance company, on the life of any person, expressed to be for the benefit of a married woman, whether the same be effected by herself, or her husband, or by any other person on her behalf, shall enure to her separate use and benefit, and that of her children, if any, independently of her husband, and his creditors and representatives, and also independently of any other person effecting the same in her behalf, his creditors or representatives; and a trustee or trustees may be appointed by any court authorized to appoint trustees, to hold and manage the interest of any married woman, in any such policy, or the proceeds thereof.

"2. Where a policy of insurance is effected, by any person, on the life of another, expressed therein to be for the benefit of such other, or his representatives, or for that of a third person, the party for whose benefit such policy is made, shall be entitled thereto, as against the creditors and representatives of the person so effecting the same.

"3. In case of any premium being paid on any such policy of insurance as is mentioned in the two preceding sections, by any person, with intent to defraud his creditors, a proportional amount of the interest in such policy, or proceeds thereof, shall enure to the benefit of his creditors, such proportion to be determined in a proceeding in equity in the Supreme Court, or other suitable legal proceeding."

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

PILOT STATION OFF THE MOUTH OF THE RIVER HOOGLY.

The experience of a second season's trial of the new pilot station off the South Channel having established that it can be made by vessels from Falls Point with the greatest facility, and that pilots can also be readily supplied, and the same cause existing which, during the last S. W. monsoon, rendered necessary the removal of the pilot station from off Point Palmyras to a position about 15 miles S. W. by W. of the outer floating light, in latitude 20 deg. 56 min. N., longitude 88 deg. 3 min. E., and in from 17 to 22 fathoms water, notice is hereby given that this latter station will in future be continued during the S. W. monsoon, viz: from 15th March to the 15th September. No difficulty can possibly be felt in passing from Falls Point to the new station, if common attention be paid to the lead, and to the following directions, prepared by Captain Lloyd, late officiating marine surveyor of the ground between the two points:—"Falls Point lighthouse is in lat. 20 deg. 19½ min., and lon. 86 deg. 47 min. E., and the South Channel buoy in lat. 25 deg. 59 min. N., and lon. 88 deg. 4 min. E., and bears from the lighthouse N. 61 E., true, or by N. E. E. ¼ E., by compass, distant 83 miles, and is laid in 12 fathoms. A bank of soundings extends from off Point Palmyras, in a direction towards the tail of the Western Sea Reef; and the nature of the bottom (as distinguished from that of the Hoogly deposit, which is sand and mud, with shining specks,) is a gravelly substance, composed of sand, shells, and small pebbles, discharged from the Kunka, and other rivers near Point Palmyras, the lighter materials of which, being carried further out, are deposited, and forms what is called the Pilot's Ridge; which, in crossing to the N. W., shows a little less water than on either side. In coming from seaward, you shoal rather suddenly from 28 to 23 fathoms, upon its eastern edge. It is composed of a shelly sand, or minute gravel, of a reddish or rusty brown color.

The best guide, hereafter, to enable a vessel to direct her course from Falls Point to the vessel at the new station, will be to run down the edge of the Pilot's Ridge, which can be readily done by making the lighthouse, and bringing it to bear about W. S. W., or S. W. by W., distant by computation 10 to 15 miles; then steering to the E. N. E., and paying gradually, increase the depth of water to 23 fathoms upon the eastern edge of the ridge; regulate the course to keep between it and 27 fathoms; when, by attention to the lead, and nature of the soundings, course and distance run from the lighthouse, it is almost impossible to miss the pilot vessels, (if the above limits are kept within,) either by getting too far to windward, or falling to leeward; for the soundings increase so rapidly to seaward, from the proposed new stations, that 28 fathoms will not be more than three or four miles to the southward of it. The soundings to the seaward of the ridge are in general a greenish, olive-colored mud, with occasionally a few bits of broken shell mixed with it." Vessels approaching the station during the day, are required to show the usual signal for a pilot, and by night to give as early and as much warning as possible, by firing guns, burning blue-lights, and by exhibiting two lights in a vertical position, where best seen; but commanders are strictly enjoined to avoid, as much as possible, making the station during the night. To mark the station, (until a proper light-vessel is built, of which due notice will be given,) one of the pilot vessels will show, during the day, a large St. George's jack, (white, with red cross,) at the maintop-gallant masthead, and a good masthead light during the night; and will burn a blue light and a maroon alternately, every half hour, and fire a gun at 8 P. M., at midnight, and at 4 A. M. Vessels approaching the station, and while there, as well as

when approaching the light* and buoy station vessels, are warned to be careful in avoiding collision by night or by day; and in communicating with either of the above vessels, either at anchor or hove-to, and when it is necessary to cross her, to pass under the stern. Several instances of serious damage have occurred during the S. W. monsoon, whereby the outer floating light was more than once compelled to leave her station for repairs, to the great inconvenience and risk of vessels entering and quitting the river.

JAMES C. MELVILL, Secretary.

East India House, London, 20th February, 1844.

REFLECTING LANTERN AND HELIOTROPE.

At a meeting of the American Philosophical Society, held in Philadelphia, in March last, Major Graham, of the corps of Topographical Engineers, a member of the society, described a reflecting lantern and a heliotrope, used by him as meridian marks for great distances, in 1841, while tracing, in his capacity of United States commissioner, the due north line from the monument at the source of the river St. Croix.

The lantern was constructed by Messrs. Henry N. Hooper & Co., of Boston, under Major G.'s directions. It was similar in form to the parabolic reflector lantern sometimes used in light-houses, but much smaller, so as to be portable.

The burner was of the argand character, with a cylindrical wick, whose transverse section was half an inch in diameter, supplied with oil in the ordinary manner. This was placed in the focus of a parabolic reflector, or paraboloid, of sheet copper, lined inside with silver about one-twentieth of an inch in thickness, polished very smooth and bright. The dimensions were as follows:—

	Inches.
Diameter of the base of frustrum of reflector,	16.00
Distance of vertex from base,	3.75
Distance of focus from vertex,	2.25
Diameter of cylindrical burner,	50
Diameter of a larger burner, which was never used, but which, by an adapting piece, could be easily submitted,	1.25

The instrument answered the purpose for which it was intended admirably well, and was of great use in tracing the due north line. While it occupied the station at Park's Hill, fifteen feet above the surface of the ground, or 828 feet above the sea, in the latter part of September, and early part of October, 1841, the light from it was distinctly seen with the naked eye, at night, when the weather was clear, from Blue Hill, whose summit, where crossed by the meridian line, is 1,071 feet above the sea; the intervening country averaging about 500 feet above the sea, and the stations being thirty-six miles apart.

The light appeared to the naked eye, at that distance, as bright, and about of the same magnitude, as the planet Venus. Viewed through a transit telescope of forty-three inches focal length, it presented a luminous disc of about thirty seconds arc in diameter. From its brilliancy at that distance, Major G. has no doubt that it would have been visible to the naked eye at fifty miles, and through the telescope at 100 miles, could stations free from interposing objects have been found so far apart.

It was remarked that the wick employed by Major Graham was considerably smaller than that usually made, even for parlor lamps; and to this cause he attributed, in a great measure, the perfection with which the parallel rays were transmitted from the reflecting parabolic surface, so as to make them visible at so great a distance. Though a greater quantity of light is generated by a larger wick, the portion of rays reflected in a direc-

* The light-vessels are directed, when another vessel is approaching during the night, to show a light at the gaff, and mark the way they are riding.

tion parallel to the axis, and which alone come to the eye, is smaller as the flame transcends the local limit. The size of the wick most advantageous for use, may easily be determined by experiment. Major G.'s impression is, that the smaller its transverse section, provided it is only large enough to escape being choked up by the charred particles, even one-third, or perhaps one-fourth of an inch, the farther the light would be visible.

It has occurred to Major G., that lanterns of this description might be used with great advantage as station-marks, in extensive trigonometrical surveys, requiring primary triangles of great length of sides. A revolving motion might be given to the lanterns, so as to make the light transmitted from them visible from many different stations within short intervals of time. Their simplicity, and the ease with which they are managed, would perhaps give them, for such purposes, a great advantage over the Drummond or Bude lights, even though they be not so brilliant as the latter.

The heliotrope, which he employed in the day-time, was made by order of Mr. Hassler, at the instrument shop of the coast survey office. It was a rectangular parallelogram, of good German plate glass, 1 4-5 by 1 1-15 inch in size, giving an area of reflecting surface of 2 16-100 square inches. This also was seen distinctly with the naked eye, at the distance of thirty-six miles.

THE PIER JETTY AT NAPLES.

Sicilian Consulate General, Naples, Feb. 17.

The pier or jetty of the new military mole of Naples having been considerably lengthened, it becomes necessary that mariners should be informed that it now extends as far as in front of the lighthouse on the old mole, bearing N. 4 deg. N. E., and is consequently in the track which vessels might steer in coming direct from the grand entrance from Capri towards the said lighthouse.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

MERCHANDISE ILLEGALLY IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES.

The following are the provisions of an act "directing the disposition of certain unclaimed goods, wares, or merchandise, seized for being illegally imported into the United States," passed during the last session of Congress, and approved by the president of the United States April 2, 1844:—

1. That hereafter, in all cases of seizure of any goods, wares, or merchandise, which shall, in the opinion of the collector, or other principal officer of the revenue making such seizure, be of the appraised value of one hundred dollars, or less, and which shall have been so seized for having been illegally imported into the United States, the said collector of the customs, or other principal officer of the revenue making such seizure, shall proceed as follows: that is to say—he shall cause a list, containing a particular description of the goods, wares, or merchandise, so seized, to be prepared in duplicate, and an appraisement of the same to be made by two sworn appraisers under the revenue laws, if there are such appraisers in such place of seizure; and if the said seizure be made where there are no such appraisers, then by two respectable and disinterested citizens of the United States, residing at the place where the seizure may be made, and to be selected by him for said purpose. The aforesaid list and appraisement shall be properly attested by such collector or other officer, and the persons making the appraisement; and for which service said appraisers shall be allowed out of the revenue the sum of one dollar and fifty cents per day each. If the said goods shall be found by such appraisers to be of the value of one hundred dollars, or less, the said collector or other officer shall publish a notice, for the space of three weeks, in some newspaper of the

county or place where the seizure was made, describing the articles, and stating the time, place, and cause of their seizure, and requiring any person or persons claiming them to appear, and make such claim within ninety days from the date of the first publication of such notice: *Provided*, That any person or persons claiming the goods, wares, or merchandise, so seized, within the time specified in the notice, may file with such collector or other officer a claim, stating his or their interest in the articles seized, and may execute a bond to the United States, in the penalty of two hundred and fifty dollars, with two sureties, to be approved by the collector or other officer referred to, conditioned that, in case of condemnation of the articles so seized, the obligers will pay all the costs and expenses of the proceedings to obtain such condemnation; and upon the delivery of such bond to the collector or other officer mentioned, he shall transmit the same, with the duplicate list and description of the goods seized, to the United States district attorney for the district, who shall proceed thereon in the ordinary manner prescribed by law: *And provided, also*, That if there shall be no claim interposed, and no bond given, within the time above specified, the collector or other officer, as the case may be, shall give twenty days' notice of the sale of the goods, wares, or merchandise, in the manner before mentioned; and, at the time and place specified in such notice, shall sell the articles so seized at public auction; and, after deducting the expenses of appraisement and sale, he shall deposit the proceeds to the credit of the treasury of the United States, as shall be directed by the secretary of the treasury.

2. That within one year after the sale of any goods, wares, or merchandise, in virtue of this act, any person or persons claiming to be interested in the goods, wares, or merchandise so sold, may apply to the secretary of the treasury for a remission of the forfeiture thereof, or any of them, and a restoration of the proceeds of the said sale, which may be granted by the said secretary, upon satisfactory proof, to be furnished in such manner as he shall prescribe: *Provided*, That it shall be satisfactorily shown that the applicant, at the time of the seizure and sale of the goods in question, and during the intervening time, was absent out of the United States, or in such circumstances as prevented him from knowing of such seizure, and that he did not know of the same; and also that the said forfeiture was incurred without wilful negligence, or any intention of fraud on the part of the owner or owners of such goods.

3. That if no application for such restoration be made within one year, as hereinbefore prescribed, then, at the expiration of the said time, the secretary of the treasury shall cause the proceeds of the sales of the said goods, wares, or merchandise, to be distributed according to law, as in the case of goods, wares, and merchandise, condemned and sold pursuant to the decree of a competent court.

4. That all provisions of any former law, inconsistent with this act, shall be, and the same are hereby, repealed.

MASTERS AND WARDENS OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

The following act, to amend the act therein referred to, declaring the rights, and for the relief of the masters and wardens of the port of New York, was passed March 29th, 1844:—

Sec. 1. No person or persons shall, under any pretence whatever, do, perform, or exercise, or attempt or offer to do, perform, or exercise, any of the powers, functions, or duties of the master and wardens of the port of New York, conferred on or required of them by law, or the act in the next section mentioned, or ask, demand, take, accept, or receive, of or from any person or persons whatever, any money, fee, emolument, or reward, for any such service; which powers, functions, and duties, are hereby declared to be exclusively vested in, and to belong and appertain to, the master and wardens of the port of New York, by virtue of their said office.

Sec. 2. That if any person or persons shall, under any pretence whatever, do, perform, or exercise any of the powers, functions, or duties of the master and wardens of the port of New York, by doing any of the acts, or performing any of the duties or services belonging or appertaining to them or their said office, specified in the act entitled "An act to reduce the laws particularly relating to the city of New York into one act, so far as the same relate to the master and wardens, harbor-master, and pilots of the port of New York, and their duties, and for other purposes," passed February 19, 1819, or which otherwise belong or appertain to the said office, by virtue of any existing law of this state or of the United States, each and every person so offending shall, for each and every offence, forfeit and pay to the masters and wardens of the port of New York

the sum of fifty dollars, to be sued for and recovered by them in their corporate name, with costs of suit, in any court having cognizance thereof; the one-half whereof, when recovered, to their own use, and the other half to the use of the pilot's charitable fund, in the city of New York: *Provided, however*, That nothing herein contained shall prevent any person or persons from acting as appraisers or arbitrators of damaged goods, in any case or cases belonging to the duties of the master and wardens of the port of New York, whenever they shall or may be required, in writing, to act as such, by all parties and persons interested in the act or acts to be done, or by their lawful agents, or from making his or their report or award in such case or cases, as in any other matter of skill or judgment, or of arbitration.

NEW TOBACCO INSPECTION LAW OF LOUISIANA.

The following act, regulating the inspection of tobacco in hogsheads and casks, was passed at the last session of the legislature of Louisiana, and approved by A. Mouton, the governor, March 25th, 1844:—

Sec. 1. That there shall be appointed by the governor and senate, from time to time, eight inspectors of tobacco for the city of New Orleans, and two inspectors of tobacco for the city of Lafayette. That, from and after the 1st day of May, 1844, no owner or owners, nor agent or agents of owners of tobacco, shall offer the same for sale, until it shall have been inspected in the manner herein directed, under the penalty of fifty dollars for every such offence, and as to each and every hogshead of tobacco; and that the two additional inspectors contemplated by the provisions of this act, be appointed forthwith.

Sec. 2. That the owner or owners, or agent or agents of owners of tobacco, brought into the city of New Orleans, and intended for sale therein, are hereby required to give notice to the said inspectors, at their office, that the same may be inspected; and that at least two of the said inspectors shall be present at every inspection, and, in case of disagreement as to quality, a third inspector shall be called to decide; and no inspector appointed in pursuance of this act shall, either directly or indirectly, buy or sell tobacco on his own account, nor act in the sale of tobacco as broker, agent, or factor, for any other person, under the penalty of four hundred dollars for every such offence.

Sec. 3. That from and after the 1st day of May, 1844, it shall be the duty of each and every inspector of tobacco, when a hogshead or cask of tobacco is opened for inspection, to examine the same carefully, in at least three different places, and to have a true and just sample drawn therefrom, (and neatly put up by the inspector,) for the use of the vender and purchasers. That before pronouncing on the quality of the same, in no case shall the brand or other mark be affixed on the hogshead, cask, or sample, until at least two inspectors have agreed on the quality thereof; the brand or mark to be affixed on the hogshead or cask to correspond with that on the sample, and classed as follows:—Admitted or refused. That all tobacco shall be classed "Admitted," unless the same shall consist chiefly of ground leaves, decayed, wet, or damaged tobacco, or in a state too moist to keep. That if any hogshead be partially damaged, to an extent not exceeding 10 per cent, said damage shall be cut off, and the samples be marked "Trimmed or cut," and the probable weight cut off be marked on the label of the sample. That all tobacco shall be classed as "Refused" when damaged to an extent exceeding 10 per cent on the nett weight of the hogshead, or when the same shall consist chiefly of ground leaves, lugs, wet or damaged tobacco, or tobacco in a state too moist to keep: *Provided*, That from and after the 1st day of May next ensuing, any person or persons requiring tobacco, in hogsheads or casks, inspected by stripping off the casks, to ascertain the actual tare thereof, and more fully to determine whether the tobacco is firmly packed, and free from trash, shall have that right granted to them by notifying the inspector to that effect. The inspector, in that case, shall cause the hogshead or cask to be up-ended by the necessary coopers and laborers supplied by the owner or consignee, so that the space of eighteen square feet shall be allowed by the warehouse-keeper for each hogshead or cask. The inspector shall then cause the hogshead or cask to be uncased or opened, and the empty hogshead or cask taken off and weighed, and the tare thereof inscribed thereon; after which, the empty hogshead or cask shall be returned on the tobacco from which it came, and coopered up in good shipping order, approved by the inspector; for which service the owner or owners, or consignee, shall pay, over and above the charges allowed by law, heretofore provided for, twenty cents per hogshead, additional fee, to the inspector, and forty cents to the coopers, for such

extra labor. And it shall be the duty of the inspector to certify the actual tare in his certificate, and that the cask has been actually stripped.

Sec. 4. That if any person or persons shall alter or erase any brand or mark of said inspectors, every person so offending shall forfeit and pay the sum of one hundred dollars for every cask, hogshead, or sample label, the brands or marks of which shall have been so altered or erased.

Sec. 5. That nothing herein contained shall be construed to extend to tobacco in carrots, or to stripped or stemmed tobacco, or to tobacco stems in hogsheads, nor to leaf tobacco in hogsheads, boxes, or bales, intended for reshipment without sale, unless at the request of the owner of the same.

Sec. 6. That, on the passage of this act, the governor shall appoint, with the advice and consent of the senate, suitable tobacco inspectors, according to the provisions of this act, to serve until the 1st day of February, 1845, and for every two years thereafter; and, in case of death or resignation of any of said tobacco inspectors during the recess of the legislature, the governor shall make temporary appointments, which shall expire at the end of the next session thereafter.

Sec. 7. That the two inspectors appointed for the city of Lafayette shall be subject to the same duties and penalties, and receive the same compensations that are established and provided in this act for the inspectors of the city of New Orleans.

Sec. 8. That from and after the 1st day of October next, all hogsheads or casks of tobacco, which shall be offered for sale in the city and port of New Orleans, shall be made of well-seasoned timber.

TARIFF OF DUTIES AT ST. JOHNS.

Statement of Duties now payable on Imports, by Land or Inland Navigation, at the Port of St. Johns, Canada East, furnished for publication in this Magazine, by Jason C. Peirce & Son, Forwarding, Custom-House, and Commission Merchants, Railroad and Steamboat Wharves, St. Johns, C. E.

	Imperial Duties.	Provincial Duties.
ARTICLES PROHIBITED.		
Arms, ammunition, or utensils of war,	Prohib.	Prohib.
Base or counterfeit coin, books of which copyright has been secured, and now in force in the United Kingdom,	Prohib.	Prohib.
ARTICLES FREE OF DUTY.		
Fish, (fresh,) garden seeds,	Free.	Free.
ARTICLES PAYING 4 PER CENT.		
Seeds of all kinds, except garden seeds,	4 per ct.	Free.
ARTICLES PAYING 5 PER CENT.		
Biscuit or bread, cotton wool, drugs, fruit, (fresh,) gums and resins, hemp, flax, tow, hides, (raw,) rice, tallow, wood and lumber, tortoise-shell,	Free.	5 per ct.
ARTICLES PAYING DIFFERENT DUTIES.		
Blubber, fins and skins of the sea, spermaceti,	15 per ct.	5 per ct.
Glass manufactures, silk do.,	15 per ct.	5 per ct.
Oils, (fish of all kinds,)	15 per ct.	Free.
Cotton manufactures, clocks and watches, corks, cordage and oakum, candles, (except spermaceti,) hardware, of all descriptions, linen manufactures, leather, woollen, paper, and soap manufactures,	7 per ct.	5 per ct.
Butter, per 112 lbs.	8*s.*	2*s.*
Beef and pork, salted and cured, "	3*s.*	2*s.*
Bacon and hams, " "	3*s.*	5*s.*
Meat of all other kinds, salted or cured, "	3*s.*	2*s.*
Meat, (fresh,) of all kinds, "	...	4*s.*
Cheese, "	5*s.*	2*s.* 6*d.*
Lard,	4 per ct.	6*s.* cwt.
Hops,	4 per ct.	3*d.* lb.
Potatoes, per bushel	.....	3*d.*

TARIFF OF DUTIES AT ST. JOHNS—Continued.

Statement of Duties now payable on Imports, by Land or Inland Navigation, at the Port of St. Johns, Canada East—Continued.

ARTICLES PAYING DIFFERENT DUTIES.

	Imperial Duties.	Provincial Duties.
Horses, mares, and geldings,.....each	.....	30*s.*
Colts and foals,.....2 years old, each	.....	15*s.*
Neat cattle,.....4 " "	.....	20*s.*
" .....under 4 " "	.....	10*s.*
Sheep,..... "	.....	2*s.*
Lambs,..... "	.....	1*s.*
Swine and hogs,..... "	.....	5*s.*
Barley, rye, peas, beans, Indian corn, buckwheat, per qr. 8 bush.	.....	3*s.*
Oats,..... "	.....	2*s.*
Barley, buckwheat, oat, rye, and Indian corn meal,..per 196 lbs.	.....	2*s.*
Wheat flour,.....per bbl. of 196 lbs.	.....	2*s.*
Wheat,.....per qr. of 8 bush.	.....	3*s.*
Coffee, green,.....	5*s.* cwt.	2*d.* lb.
" ground,.....	5*s.* cwt.	4*d.* lb.
" roasted,.....	5*s.* cwt.	5 per ct.
Cocoa,.....	1*s.* cwt.	5 per ct.
Fish, salted or dried,.....	2*s.* cwt.	.....
Fish, pickled or salted,.....per bbl.	4*s.*	.....
Molasses,.....per 112 lbs.	3*s.*	1*s.* 6*d.*
Sugar, refined,.....	20 per ct.	2*d.* lb.
" unrefined,.....	5*s.* cwt.	1*d.* lb.
Tobacco, manufactured, all kinds,.....	7 per ct.	2*d.* lb.
" leaf,.....	4 per ct.	1*d.* lb.
Tea,.....	1*d.* lb.	3*d.* lb.
Wine, Madeira,.....	7 per ct.	1*s.* gal.
" all others,.....	7 per ct.	6*d.* gal.
Spirits, Brandy, Gin, Whiskey, Cordials, } Not sweetened, per gallon, proof,..... Over proof, in proportion.	1*s.* 6*d.*	6*d.*
Do. do. sweetened,.....per gallon	1*s.* 6*d.*	1*s.* 7*d.*
Rum,.....per gallon, proof,	1*s.*	6*d.*
Syrups,.....	4 per ct.	1*s.* 6*d.* cwt.
Alabaster, almonds, allspice, arrow root, ashes, baskets, beaver, beeswax, blacking, bone, brick, bristles, brooms, brushes, burr stones, cabinetware, calf-skins, capers, carriages, cement, chalk, chairs, Chinaware, chocolate, chromes, cider, clay, camphine oil, cloves, coal, cocoa-nuts, combs, crockery, currants, dye-woods, earthenware, ebony, essences, feathers, figs, filberts, furs, furniture, (new or old,) ginger, glue, hair, hats, (beaver,) honey, India-rubber and indigo, lard oil, leather, lemon syrup, maccaroni, marble, medicines, musical instruments, nuts of all kinds, oil, (olive,) palm-leaf manufactures, paints, pepper, pickles, pipes, pitch, preserves, quills, raisins, spices, sponge, starch, stone, spirits turpentine, tar, vinegar, whetstones, and all other articles not enumerated,.	4 per ct.	5 per ct.

Goods imported may be bonded for warehousing either at Montreal or Quebec.

Bonds may be given for all provincial duties when amounting to £50 currency, with conditions for payment at six months from date, if the same shall be dated on or before the 1st day of September; and if dated after the 1st of September, then they become due on the 1st April next ensuing.

Ten per cent is added to all invoices paying imperial per centage duties, and duty is paid at currency rate.

Provincial per centage duties are also paid in currency rate.

All specific duties are paid in sterling.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

EXPORTS OF COTTON, BREADSTUFFS, ETC., FROM THE U. STATES.

COTTON EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEARS ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1841 AND 1842.

To	1841. Lbs.	1841. Value.	1842. Lbs.	1842. Value.
Russia,	986,168	$114,578	2,833,757	$237,314
Prussia,	.....	.....	61,233	5,655
Sweden and Norway,	1,832,020	197,958	891,847	73,527
Denmark,	17,928	1,891	44,722	3,078
Holland and dependencies,	2,635,158	273,531	8,391,587	645,595
The Hanse Towns,	6,495,721	672,673	9,701,368	800,157
Belgium,	9,816,030	1,033,633	8,227,699	637,058
England and her dependencies,	*348,804,077	35,687,347	†379,065,182	30,135,412
France and her dependencies,	‡139,424,568	14,348,567	§165,821,260	13,393,044
Spain and her dependencies,	9,955,534	982,380	7,108,682	665,236
Portugal and her dependencies,	25,922	2,553	46,241	4,965
Italy,	1,865,317	185,472	3,878,191	290,970
Sicily,	3,510	395	136,019	10,398
Sardinia,	.....	.....	394,439	36,191
Trieste, and other Austrian p'ts,	8,131,237	803,404	7,093,306	585,770
Turkey, the Levant, &c.,	204,684	24,231	16,682	1,399
China,	.....	.....	1,004,802	67,695
Venezuela,	6,226	1,728	.....	.....
Total,	530,204,100	$54,330,341	584,717,017	$47,593,464

BREADSTUFFS EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPT. 30, 1842.

To	Flour and wheat.	Indian corn.	Rye and corn meal.	Biscuit.	Total.
	1842.				
Sweden and Swe. W. Indies,	$64,345	$1,322	$21,926	$1,379	$88,972
Denmark and Dan. W. Indies,	233,299	3,761	151,273	9,738	398,071
Hanse Towns,	4,110	15	.....	.....	4,125
Holland and dependencies,	95,958	3,210	18,772	7,776	125,716
Belgium,	150	.....	.....	194	344
England and dependencies,	5,618,855	275,282	517,066	220,933	6,632,136
France and dependencies,	51,119	6,978	704	783	59,584
Spain and dependencies,	338,515	6,484	28,879	26,518	400,396
Portugal and dependencies,	7,165	27,263	145	2,981	37,554
Italy, Sicily, and Trieste,	.....	.....	.....	7	7
Turkey, Levant, &c.,	72	.....	.....	233	305
Hayti,	147,991	.....	114	3,120	151,225
Texas,	19,059	2,064	97	1,534	22,754
Mexico,	115,388	12,253	.....	1,430	129,071
South America,	1,567,242	4,721	3,194	30,561	1,605,718
West Indies, generally,	5,289	1,721	.....	646	7,656
Asia, generally,	3,247	.....	.....	392	3,639
China,	1,612	.....	.....	5,154	6,766
Africa, generally,	15,508	.....	43	5,302	20,853
South Seas and Pacific ocean,	3,048	76	.....	5,078	8,202
Total,	$8,291,972	$345,150	$742,213	$323,759	$9,703,094

* Of this, 4,631,247 lbs. were sea island cotton.
† " 5,708,698 " " "
‡ " 1,606,177 " " "
§ " 1,545,401 " " "

PROVISIONS EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES IN THE YEARS RESPECTIVELY ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1841, AND SEPTEMBER 30, 1842.

To	1841.	1842.
Swedish West Indies,	$31,578	$23,093
Danish West Indies,	79,195	76,020
Hanse Towns,	25,890	31,141
Holland and dependencies,	46,725	52,110
Belgium,	2,363	8,104
England and dependencies,	2,160,306	2,048,073
France and dependencies,	183,079	988,544
Spain and dependencies,	1,063,566	684,842
Portugal and dependencies,	8,204	8,463
Italy,	.....	2,305
Trieste, and other Austrian ports,	1,296	390
Turkey, and the Levant,	1,629	1,956
Hayti,	231,359	156,527
Texas,	33,984	20,436
Mexico,	20,242	20,757
South America,	161,378	177,827
West Indies, generally,	14,129	7,699
China,	9,504	4,942
Asia, generally,	7,287	3,652
Africa, generally,	22,392	19,682
South Seas and Sandwich islands,	39,962	11,752
Total,	$4,144,068	$4,348,315

Beef, tallow, hides, and live horned cattle,	$1,212,638
Pork, hams, bacon, lard, and hogs,	2,629,403
Butter and cheese,	388,185
Potatoes,	85,844
Apples,	32,245
Total,	$4,348,315—exports of 1842.

NOTE.—The above account includes the exports of beef and horned cattle; pork, hams, bacon, lard, and live hogs; butter, cheese, potatoes, and apples. The return for tallow and hides is also included, as the official documents do not furnish a separate statement.

LEATHER, AND MANUFACTURES OF LEATHER, EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, DURING THE YEARS ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1841 AND 1842, RESPECTIVELY.

	1841.			1842.		
To	Prs. boots and shoes.	Lbs. of leather.	Value.	Prs. boots and shoes.	Lbs. of leather.	Value.
Danish West Indies,	1,882	4,200	$2,720	965	3,494	$1,855
Dutch West Indies,	.....	5,472	1,026	350	4,449	1,011
England and dependencies,	17,057	353,232	98,803	23,545	310,178	95,231
Cuba, and Span. dependencies,	445	15,120	3,728	2,121	6,792	3,732
French West Indies,	12	.....	21	96	1,174	390
Hayti,	1,060	453	1,080	1,202	.....	884
Spain on the Mediterranean,	500	.....	485	.....	.....	.....
Texas,	53,533	3,858	62,566	28,159	2,797	28,395
Portugal and dependencies,	1,018	.....	729	1,690	.....	1,266
Mexico,	611	.....	579	5,182	1,526	5,261
South America,	14,474	7,249	14,670	24,281	14,700	22,119
Asia, generally,	966	.....	682	1,074	615	1,237
Africa, generally,	3,628	540	3,368	2,652	.....	1,860
South Seas and Pacific,	3,286	531	3,126	2,663	75	2,699
Sweden and Norway,	.....	.....	.....	160	17,893	2,985
Total,	98,472	390,655	$193,583	94,140	363,693	$168,925

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The statements from the treasury, required by law to be made periodically, of the Commerce and Navigation of the United States, were transmitted to Congress on Tuesday, April 2, 1844. They comprise the period of nine months, ending June 30, 1843, and are, as usual, full of interest for all persons engaged in mercantile pursuits. The following is an abstract of them :—

The exports during the nine months ending the 30th June, 1843, amounted to $84,346,480; of which $77,793,783 were of domestic, and $6,552,697 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles, $60,107,819 were exported in American vessels, and $17,685,964 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, $4,945,817 were exported in American vessels, and $1,606,880 in foreign vessels.

The imports during the nine months ending the 30th June, 1843, have amounted to $64,753,799; of which there was imported in American vessels $49,971,875; and in foreign vessels $14,781,924.

Of the $77,973,783 of exports, the growth and produce of the United States, there were from the—

Fisheries,		$2,112,548
Forest,		3,351,909
Agriculture—Animals,	$3,963,694	
" Vegetable food,	6,955,908	
		10,919,602
Tobacco,		4,650,979
Cotton,		49,119,806
Manufactures,		3,223,550

Of the domestic produce, $37,720,951, or about half the entire amount, was exported to England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Of the foreign goods imported, there were—

Free of duty,	$35,574,584
Ad valorem duties,	16,684,875
Specific duties,	12,494,340
Total,	$64,753,799

1,144,523 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,286,083 tons cleared from the ports of the United States. 534,752 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 523,949 tons cleared, during the same period.

The number of vessels, American and foreign, arriving at all the ports of the United States, was—

American.		Foreign.	
Boston,	455	Boston,	488
New York,	875	New York,	276
New Orleans,	833	New Orleans,	233
Total,	4,872	Total,	2,889

Total.

Boston,	943
New York,	1,151
New Orleans,	1,066
Total,	7,761

Of the 534,752 of foreign tonnage, 453,894 was British.

The tonnage of the United States, June 30, 1843, was as follows:—

The registered tonnage,	1,009,305.01
Enrolled and licensed tonnage,	1,076,155.59
Fishing vessels,	73,142.33
Total,	2,158,602.93

Of registered and enrolled tonnage, there were employed in the whale fisheries,..... 453,375.86

Of the tonnage, there belonged to the ports of—

	Registered.		Enrolled.
Boston,.....	165,482.67	Boston,.....	37,116.44
New York,.....	237,240.26	New York,.....	259,725.27
New Orleans,.....	49,957.60	New Orleans,.....	99,452.06
Philadelphia,.....	39,445.84	Philadelphia,.....	64,894.59
New Bedford,.....	83,056.69	New Bedford,.....	17,024.74
Total,.....	1,009,305.01	Total,.....	1,149,297.92

	Aggregate.		Aggregate.
Boston,.....	202,599.18	New Bedford,.....	100,081.48
New York,.....	496,965.56		
New Orleans,.....	149,409.66	Total,.....	2,158,602.93
Philadelphia,.....	104,340.48		

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States during the nine months ending June 30, 1843, was—

Registered,.....	27,275.32
Enrolled,.....	36,342.45
Total,.....	63,617.77

ROCHESTER FLOURING MILLS.

The following table shows the amount of flour manufactured, and wheat consumed, in each of the mills at Rochester, N. Y., in 1843. It is derived from Elwood & Dewey's Rochester City Directory, for 1844; and, as it was prepared on the spot, may be relied on as correct:—

	Run of stones.	Bbls. flour.	Bush. wheat.*
Aqueduct Mills, E. S. Beach,.....	10	36,241	163,085
Red Mills, James Chappel,.....	3	13,700	61,650
New York Mills, E. & H. Lyon,.....	6	5,500	24,750
" James Chappel,.....	.	12,303	55,364
City Mills, W. F. Holmes,.....	5	16,273	73,229
Ætna Mills, Thomas Barnard,.....	4	9,505	42,773
Crescent Mills, L. Cobk,.....	6	4,500	20,250
" W. Y. Andrews,.....	.	15,000	67,500
Ely's Mills, Elisha D. Ely,.....	9	30,152	135,634
White Mills, William C. Foster,.....	3	13,513	60,809
Carthage Mills, M. B. Seward,.....	4	10,914	49,133
Union Mills, Holmes & Goodman,.....	4	6,212	29,304
Farmers' Custom Mills, S. Goraline,....	3	1,000	4,500
Field's Mills, Joseph Field,.....	5	28,544	128,448
Smith's mills, (N. half,) F. A. Spalding,.	4	7,950	35,775
Smith's mills, (S. half,) H. Slater, ...	4	4,500	20,250
Shawmut Mills, Smith & Allcott,.....	6	26,450	119,025
Whitney Mills, John Williams,.....	5	24,300	109,350
Frankfort Mills, G. W. Burbank & Co.,	3	31,749	142,871
Frankfort Custom Mills, Isaac F. Mack,	3	7,000	31,500
Hart's Mills, W. G. Oatman, Agent,.....	10	28,288	127,296
Hoyt's Mills, Joseph Putnam,.....	4	13,500	60,750
Genesee Falls Mills, T. Parsons,.....	3	18,000	81,000
Phœnix Mills, J. Hallowel,.	4	15,288	68,796
Total,.....	108	380,682	1,713,072

Assuming that the average cost of each barrel of flour was $4, the millers actually paid out in cash, for wheat, &c., during the last season, $1,521,128.

* Four and a half bushels of wheat to one barrel of flour.

NAVIGATION OF THE DANISH SOUND.

In the Merchants' Magazine for March, 1844, we published an original translation made from the Danish of Schlegel, giving the origin and history of the Danish Sound and Belt-Tolls. The following statistics of the Sound show the operations of the corn trade on the English shipping. The nature of a "sliding scale" requiring that when corn is to be shipped in a foreign port, not a moment is to be lost, the foreign ship-owner obtains the freight, not because he is able to accept it on lower terms than his British competitor, but because his vessel is on the spot, and the English one is not. The number of vessels which passed the Sound last year, it will be seen by the subjoined table, was 1,262 less than in 1839; of which falling off the British ship-owners have sustained the enormous proportion of three-fourths, the number of British vessels being 4,509; whereas, in 1843, it had slidden down to 3,518.

NUMBER OF VESSELS WHICH PASSED THE "SOUND" DURING THE LAST FIVE YEARS.

Nation.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.
British,	4,509	4,071	3,788	3,520	3,518
Hanoverian,	815	768	823	766	842
Danish,	1,123	974	1,017	1,068	1,399
Swedish,	1,243	1,364	1,133	1,219	1,431
Norwegian,	1,656	2,025	1,687	1,860	1,625
Prussian,	3,057	2,996	2,864	2,811	2,480
Russian,	832	814	819	761	753
Dutch,	1,199	947	973	912	1,224
Hamburgh,	19	23	20	16	28
Bremen,	70	59	73	60	37
Belgian,	33	21	11	6	6
French,	240	239	217	240	180
Mecklenburg,	995	962	959	821	851
Lubeck,	108	96	88	79	75
American,	114	143	123	113	144
Oldenburg,	129	85	128	140	175
Italian,	44	52	15	59	69
Spanish,	20	18	14	4	8
Portuguese,	3	5	2	2	2
Total,	16,209	15,662	14,754	13,957	14,947

COMMERCE OF CLEVELAND, CINCINNATI, AND PORTSMOUTH.

Amount of Merchandise cleared from Cleveland, Cincinnati, and Portsmouth, from 1832 *to* 1843; *and the estimated value placed upon the amount cleared from Cleveland during the period named.*

1832,	5,260,000	$300	$1,578,000	.....	.....
1833,	9,896,000	"	2,968,800	6,124,000	.....
1834,	10,128,000	"	3,038,400	5,568,000	.....
1835,	14,839,000	"	4,451,700	7,217,000	6,868,000
1836,	13,384,000	"	4,015,200	6,065,000	7,220,000
1837,	10,757,000	"	3,227,100	6,020,000	3,487,000
1838,	18,875,000	"	5,662,500	6,887,000	3,763,000
1839,	19,126,000	"	5,737,800	8,664,009	7,086,000
1840,	10,784,000	"	3,235,200	6,566,000	6,740,000
1841,	15,064,000	"	4,549,200	4,359,000	5,774,000
1842,	10,092,000	"	3,007,600	3,849,000	5,111,000
1843,	14,823,000	"	3,846,900	3,651,000	5,812,000

Some trifling articles have been omitted in constructing this table. In estimating the value of merchandise, the amount has been fixed at $300 on every 1,000 lbs.

CANAL AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

BUSINESS OF THE GEORGIA CENTRAL RAILROAD.

Years.	No. Pass.	Passage money.	Bales cotton.	U. S. Mail.	Tot. receiptv.
1842—November,.....	812	$3,496 00	8,317	1,085 71	$26,067
" December,.....	776	3,163 50	5,475	1,085 71	17,453
1843—January,.....	803	2,545 25	7,551	1,085 71	19,294
" February,.....	487	1,885 75	3,422	1,085 71	11,929
" March,.....	532	2,092 50	1,127	1,085 71	7,486
" April,.....	517	2,075 25	847	1,085 71	7,486
" May,.....	887	3,413 50	742	1,214 25	10,107
" June,.....	741	2,511 00	485	1,214 25	7,707
" July,.....	715	2,192 25	48	1,715 00	8,080
" August,.....	655	2,122 50	289	1,715 00	11,142
" September,.....	677	2,732 00	1,985	1,715 00	21,447
" October,.....	1,034	4,245 75	6,478	1,715 00	35,256
" November,.....	1,425	4,854 12	10,367	1,715 00	42,612
Aggregate,.....	10,461	$37,325 37	47,133	$17,517 76	$227,531
Expense same period,.....					134,341
Excess receipts,.....					$93,100
1843—December,.....	1,534	5,270 19	9,493	1,715 00	31,252
1844—January,.....	1,527	5,671 48	10,731	1,715 00	29,758
" February,.....	1,574	6,251 30	7,893	1,715 00	25,704
Total,.....	4,635	$17,193 06	28,117	$5,145 00	$86,715

From the commencement of the cotton season, (say 1st of August to 1st of March,) the receipts have been..... $197,176 97
For the same period last year,..... 116,420 97

Gain in those 7 months,..... $80,756 00

Increase of bales cotton, 41 per cent; number of passengers, 90 per cent; passage money, 90 per cent; total receipts, 69 per cent.

TARIFF OF FREIGHTS ON THE ERIE CANAL.

The forwarders along the line of the canal have entered into arrangements as to the rates of freight to Albany for the present season. We give below the prices, as agreed upon, on the principal articles from the leading western ports:—

Articles.	Buffalo. *Cents.*	Lockp't. *Cents.*	Roch'ter. *Cents.*	Pittsf'd. *Cents.*	Bushnell's Basin. *Cents.*
Flour,.....	75	70	56	55	54
Ashes, butter, cheese, lard, &c., per 100 lbs.,	40	38	34	33	31
Pork, beef, tallow, bacon, and whiskey, per 100 lbs.,.....	35	35	34	33	33
Dried fruit, seeds, and leather, per 100 lbs.,	50	47	40	39	39
Hops, tobacco, rags, hides, domestic goods, and furniture,.....	65	60	50	48	48
Wool, per 100 lbs.,.....	1 00	92	75	73	73
Mill feed, per 216 lbs.,.....	90	80	65	64	64
Grain, per 60 lbs.,.....	21	19	16	15	15
Staves, lumber, over toll, per ton,.....	3 00	2 75	2 25	2 15	2 10

On flour shipped at Rochester, 2 cents is charged for storage; making the whole cost at Albany 56 cents.

FREIGHTS ON PENNSYLVANIA CANAL.

We annex the following statement of the tolls on some important articles, which have been established by the companies engaged in transporting goods between Baltimore and Pittsburgh :—

The charge for coffee, between these two points, is now 37½ cents per 100 lbs.; and within a few days this article has been receipted for, through from Baltimore to Louisville, including charges of every description, at 48 cents. The present rates from Baltimore to Pittsburgh are, for dry-goods, shoes, &c., 65 cents; brown muslins, hardware, and queensware, 60 cents; and groceries, generally, 62½ cents per 100 lbs. Shad, $1 25, and herrings $1, per bbl. The charges to Wheeling are 10 cents per 100 lbs., additional to those named above. The freights on the Ohio river, from Pittsburgh to Louisville, upon merchandise, generally rule about 15 cents per 100 lbs. Heavy goods, such as tobacco, bacon, &c., are now paying 45 to 50 cents from Pittsburgh to Baltimore.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

FREAKS OF WEALTHY MERCHANTS.

It is stated in Chambers's Continental Tour, that the wealth which now exists in Amsterdam falls much short of what it was previous to the French revolution, or during the period of Dutch commercial pre-eminence. It is not long since strangers, in visiting Amsterdam, were shown the spacious house of a merchant, who, after lavishing much on furniture and painting, actually caused the floor of one of his apartments to be laid with Spanish dollars, set on edge. Whims equally ridiculous, for disposing of an overplus of wealth, appear to have been far from uncommon in former times in Holland. A gentleman of my acquaintance, passing through Arnheim a few days ago, had his attention directed to an old, fantastical-looking dwelling, concerning which, he gathered the following historical reminiscence :—The original owner was a Jew merchant, and he erected the house out of pure revenge. His coffers were so well replenished that he was at a loss how to employ his superfluous cash. At last he hit upon a fanciful expedient. He determined to make a pavement before his residence, of large massive plates of silver, and to surround it with an ornamental chain, of the same costly metal. Before carrying this plan into effect, it behooved him to obtain the sanction of the authorities. These worthies, however, void of sympathy, set their face against a proposition which might have compelled them to increase the strength of the town-guard. Enraged at their non-compliance, Moses determined to punish them. He ordered his dwelling, situated in the principal street, immediately to be pulled down, and on its site erected the one now standing. It is literally covered with diabolical figures, amounting, it is said, to three hundred and sixty-five.

IMITATION RUSSIA SHEET IRON.

A specimen of this successful imitation of a foreign article—the manufacture of which has heretofore been zealously kept secret by the Russian government—has been left at the counting-room of the Baltimore American. It is made in Pennsylvania, and purposely glazed only on one side. It is stated in that Journal that both sides can be glazed if required; but, as only one side shows when manufactured, it answers every purpose to glaze but one side, and the saving of three-fourths of a cent per lb. in cost. This iron, we learn, can be afforded at about 63 per cent, or $107 40 per ton less than the lowest average price of the foreign full-glazed article, of the same thickness; to which, in appearance, it very nearly approaches. Being manufactured with great care, from the best of blooms, it will fully compare with the foreign in malleability and toughness. Stoves made of this iron have been in use for two years, and look as well as when first made up, and the manufacture has since been very much improved.

CIGAR MANUFACTURE AT MALAGA.

We find it stated, in Captain Scott's Excursions in Spain, that the manufactory of Malaga employs 700 persons, women, and children, in making cigars. A good pair of hands at the work may furnish 300 a day; but, (as the children cannot make half that number,) taking the average at 200, gives a daily supply of 140,000. The manufactory at Seville employs 1,000 men, and 1,600 women. These 2,600 persons may be calculated as furnishing, on an average, 250 each per diem; or, altogether, 650,000. Add to this number the 140,000 made at Malaga, and we have 790,000 as the "total of the whole" manufactured daily in Spain. The persons employed in the manufacture of cigars are paid at the rate of one real vellon for fifty, which enables even a first-rate maker to earn but fifteen pence a day. The best cigars are made entirely of Havana tobacco, and are sold at the factory at the rate of thirty real vellons a hundred, or about three farthings English each. The second quality, composed of mixed tobacco, (that is, the interior of Havana leaf, and the outside of Virginia,) cost eighteen real vellons per hundred, or something under a halfpenny each. It may be seen, from this statement of the cost of cigars of the royal manufactory, that smuggling cannot but prosper; since at the Havana the very best cigars are sold for twelve dollars a thousand, (or a trifle above a halfpenny each,) while those of inferior quality may be had for one-fourth that price.

FRAUDS IN TRADE AT LIVERPOOL.

The Liverpool Mercury furnishes the following list and particulars of frauds *in trade*, practised by dealers in that great market-town. Are not similar frauds practised in the United States?

Frauds in Butter.—In the Liverpool markets, three tricks are played by persons selling butter. In some instances, salt butter is moulded into the form of pounds of fresh butter, and cased over with fresh, so as to deceive the taster, who, however, soon discovers the cheat when the butter is cut at home. In other instances, salt butter is moulded into the shape of fresh, and not cased at all; but a pound of fresh is conspicuously placed to be tasted; but *that* pound is not sold—and in other instances salt butter, washed, is moulded, and sold as fresh. Purchasers, in all these cases, are supplied with salt butter only.

Frauds in Sugar.—Pounded rice, and other cheap materials, are mixed in sugar, and sold at full monopoly price. A chemical substance—the refuse of the soap manufactories—is also mixed with other substances, and sold as sugar.

Frauds in Coffee.—To avoid the mixture of chicory in good coffee, discreet housewives purchase coffee unground, and take the trouble of grinding it at home; but they are often cheated, nevertheless. Chicory, or some similarly cheap substance, is skilfully moulded into the form of the coffee berry, and is mixed with the bulk very liberally.

Frauds in Cocoa.—This article is extensively adulterated with fine brown earth, wrought up with mutton fat, so as to amalgamate with portions of the real article.

Frauds in Tea.—The leaves are mingled with sloe-leaves, and other abominations, to swindle the public. Used leaves are also re-dried, and re-colored on hot copper plates, and sold as tea.

Frauds in Tobacco.—Nasty things of all sorts, if cheap, are mixed with the weed in all its manufactured forms, and the whole is sold at less than the duty. Yellow ochre is a prime ingredient for "Bird's-Eye."

Frauds in Stockings.—They are purposely stretched, to look large, to fetch a large price. The moment they are washed, they shrink from men's size to women's, and from women's to children's, and soon come to pieces from the stretching they have suffered.

Frauds in Flannel.—It is purposely stretched to the utmost endurance of the fibre, to measure long and broad, and to command good prices; but a garment made of it is of little use after the first washing.

Forgery in Crockery.—Pretty ware is made; but, to screw an extra profit, the thinnest possible glaze is thrown over it, instead of a good substantial one, and a good price is obtained for it; but use it gently as you will, it soon cracks in all directions. It is almost worthless.

Frauds in General.—Pepper is adulterated with dust from husks, &c. Port wine is altogether *manufactured* by certain parties, it being notorious that more wine, so called, is drank in this country than is made in Portugal. Quart bottles only hold three half pints; pint bottles only hold three quarter pints. Cloth, twenty-eight or thirty inches wide, is called yard wide. Names mean nothing but to deceive.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Commercial Phraseology.* By C. F. & G. Meeden, Hamburgh. New York: William Radde.

This work will prove eminently useful to natives of America, England, France, and Germany, devoting themselves to commercial pursuits; and who, therefore, must be interested in acquiring a facility of expression in the English, German, and French languages; as they will here find, in a well ordered combination, such an abundant choice of words, phrases, and sentences, actually in use, as greatly to facilitate their acquisition of this important subject. It will also be useful as a book of reference for practical merchants, who well know how inadequate are all dictionaries in matters of commercial style and terminology. The names of the leading articles of commerce, and commercial phrases, &c., are given in parallel columns. We have found it extremely useful in enumerating articles of commerce in the preparation of our statistical tables, as it contains terms not to be found in the ordinary dictionaries of foreign languages.

2.—*The Principles of Political Economy.* By Henry Vethake, LL. D., one of the Professors in the University of Pennsylvania, etc. 8vo., pp. 414. Philadelphia: J. W. Moore.

The present treatise is a systematic exposition of the principles of political economy. Professor Vethake seems to have avoided almost all reference to other writers whose opinions differ from his own, or any direct notice of the controversies which have been agitated by the many distinguished men who have successively occupied the path of investigation in which he has followed them. The various subjects comprehended in the treatise are arranged in logical order, and in a manner well adapted for the instruction of the student. The author entertains liberal and enlightened views on most of the subjects embraced in his work; and it is with pleasure that we commend it to all inquirers after truth in this important but comparatively little understood science.

3.—*A Lecture on the Law of Representation in Marine Insurance. With Notes and Illustrations, and a Preliminary Lecture on the question whether Marine Insurance was known to the Ancients.* By John Duer, LL. D. New York: F. S. Voorhies.

The main body of this work is occupied with a treatise on the doctrine of representations in marine insurance. The subject is treated with great legal ability, and fortified with the most approved authorities on the subject. The preliminary lecture, discussing the litigated question whether marine insurance was known to the ancients, was originally delivered as a lecture; and traces, with marked force and clearness, the rise and progress of marine insurance. It will be read with pleasure by those members of the profession who have cultivated an acquaintance with the civil law, and retain their love of classic learning.

4.—*Sermons.* By Rev. F. W. P. Greenwood, D. D., Minister of King's Chapel, Boston. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 340 and 390. Boston: Little & Brown.

As models of chaste and elegant composition, the sermons embraced in the present volume will not suffer by comparison with Addison, or the best English writers of our time. The pure and beautiful morality, and the calm and quiet piety inculcated in these discourses, and indeed in all the writings of the lamented author, will commend them to a large class of Christian readers. The sermons are introduced by a memoir of the life and character of the author, so rare in its happy combination of valuable endowments, that it will not soon pass from the memory of those who have known him; and ought not to be left without record for the benefit of all who can be improved by its example. The unrivalled typographical beauty of these volumes greatly enhance their value in our estimation.

5.—*A Practical Treatise on Midwifery.* By M. CHAILLY, M. D., and Ex-Chief of the Obstetric Clinque of the Faculty of Paris, Professor of Midwifery, etc., etc. Illustrated with 216 cuts. Translated from the French, and edited by GUNNING S. BEDFORD, A. M., M. D., Professor of Midwifery and the Diseases of Women and Children in the University of New York. 8vo., pp. 530. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This work comes out under the sanction and approval of the Royal Council of Public Instruction of France, and the use of it is authorized in the faculties, in the schools of medicine, and in the different courses instituted for the instruction of *sage-femmes.* It combines all that is new and valuable in obstetric science, and every topic is treated in detail, and bears the impress of the master's mind. The encomiums which have been passed upon this work by some of the best European Journals, and the high character of Paul Dubois, whose instructions and experience it embodies, will doubtless secure for it a favorable reception on this side of the Atlantic.

6.—*Mental and Moral Culture, and Popular Education.* By S. S. RANDALL, General Deputy Superintendent of Common Schools of the State of New York. 18mo., pp. 236. New York: Charles S. Francis.

This sensible, well-written little volume, discusses the whole subject of mental and moral culture with great ability. The attention of the young is here directed to considerations intimately connected with their physical, moral, and intellectual education, and the formation of their character. Mr. R. points out with precision the facilities, as well as the obstacles to mental culture, which are presented by the varying circumstances of their condition in life, by the institutions of society, and by public sentiment The volume also includes a special report on Common School Libraries, prepared in pursuance of instructions of the Superintendent of Common Schools, by Mr. Henry S. Randall, County Superintendent of Cortland county.

7.—*A New Spirit of the Age.* Edited by R. H. HORNE, author of "Orion," "Gregory VII," etc. 12mo., pp. 364. New York: J. C. Riker.

This attractive volume appears to be a continuation of Hewlett's "Spirit of the Age," published some twenty years since. It embraces anecdotes and criticisms of about forty of the most eminent literary characters of England; all of whom, with a single exception, are now living. In the biographical sketches, which are only occasional, the author has excluded all disagreeable personalities, and all unwarrantable anecdotes. The criticisms are entirely on abstract grounds. The critical opinions of the writer are never balanced and equivocal, or evasive of decision on the whole. The present edition is neatly bound, and embraces lithographic portraits of Thomas Carlye, Thomas Noon Talfourd, Harriet Martineau, &c.

8.—*Sweet Auburn and Mount Auburn, with other Poems.* By CAROLINE F. ORNE. 12mo., pp. 196. Cambridge: John Owen.

The subject of the two principal poems in this volume, "Sweet Aburn" and (the old name of) "Mount Aburn," are objects of interest, not merely to a few individuals, or even towns, but many thousand hearts are directly or indirectly concerned in whatever relates to this beautiful land of the departed, this city "of the silent." To all such, these beautiful and generally well sustained poems will be a most acceptable offering. The shorter pieces, which occupy about one-half the collection, have already appeared in various magazines and other periodicals, and are worthy of being preserved in the more permanent and really handsome dress of everything from the press of Mr. Owen, the publisher.

9.—*Marco Paul's Adventures in Pursuit of Knowledge. Forests of Maine.* By the author of "Rollo," "Jonas," and "Lucy" Books. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

The sixth of a series of books for children and youth, which we have no hesitation in pronouncing one of the best adapted to its design, of imparting amusement and instruction, ever published.

10.—*Records of the Heart.* By Mrs. Sarah Anna Lewis. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The leading poem in this beautiful volume is founded on an Italian tradition, related to the author by a native of Florence. Several of the minor pieces, which have appeared within the last two or three years, in different periodicals and magazines, were favorably received; which, together with the "earnest solicitation of friends, on whose learning, taste, and judgment, the author could rely, induced her to present the present volume to the public." The author seems to possess in her nature the elements of poetry, and has succeeded in embodying the inspirations of her muse in a natural and graceful versification. Several of her shorter pieces are pretty, and the longer poems are generally well sustained throughout.

11.—*The Christian Instructed in the Ways of the Gospel and the Church. A Series of Discourses delivered in St. James' Church, Goshen, N. Y., during the years* 1840–42. By Rev. J. A. Spencer, A. M., late Rector. 12mo., pp. 325. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is the first volume of sermons, by an American divine, which has been published for some years. Their style is characterized by clearness, directness, and force. The doctrines of the Bible, as they are understood by the author, are here presented in a familiar and plain manner, as the Church Catholic has held them, and as they are held by the Reformed branches in England and America. The volume is prefaced with an introduction, and embraces a brief notice of what the Church is, how she is distinguished from the various surrounding denominations, &c.; of the value and advantage of the liturgy; and also a succinct account of the various festivals and fasts, and holy seasons. We hope all who feel interested in the religion of the Episcopal Church will extend to this volume their support, as the author is at present physically unable to discharge the active duties of the ministry, and as it will be a source of temporal comfort to a very worthy man.

12.—*Ridley, Latimer, Cranmer, and other English Martyrs.* By Charlotte Elizabeth. 12mo., pp. 300. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

The author of these memoirs of men who laid down their lives for their religious opinions, is a zealous Protestant, and views the "Popery" of the Roman Catholic Church of the past and present with the utmost horror. She holds the pen of a strong and ready writer, and her criticisms of the Church are marked with more severity than many liberal-minded reformers of our time conceive to be either just, or in accordance with that charity that "hopeth and believeth all things." Protestants should not forget, while dwelling upon the unchristian persecutions of the Catholics in time past, that they themselves were not without sin on this head.

13.—*Every Man his Own Cattle-Doctor; containing the Causes, Symptoms, and Treatment of all the Diseases incident to Oxen, Sheep, and Swine; and a Sketch of Neat Cattle.* By Francis Clatter. Edited, revised, and almost re-written, by William Youatt, author of "The Horse," etc. With Numerous Additions, embracing an Essay on the Use of Oxen, and the Improvement in the Breed of Sheep, &c. By John S. Skinner. With numerous cuts and illustrations. 12mo., pp. 250. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The copious title-page sufficiently indicates the design and character of this little manual; which, in its original form, passed through eight editions in England, and has been greatly improved and enlarged by the American editor.

14.—*The Traveller; or, Wonders of Art.* 18mo., pp. 147. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

This little volume treats in an easy and familiar style the most important inventions of our time, connected with the existence, safety, and comfort of the race; the scientific inventions, and mining; and many of the wonders of art produced by the mind of man, gifted with that inspiration of the Divine Architect which has given him understanding.

15.—*The Poems—Sacred, Passionate, and Humorous—of Nathaniel Parker Willis.* 8vo., pp. 331. New York: Clark & Austin.

Mr. Willis's numerous admirers have reason to thank the publishers for this very handsome and complete edition of his poetical works. The sacred poems seem to flow from the inspiration of the author's highest moments, when all that is elevating in the religious sentiment is breathed forth in "thoughts that breathe, and words that burn." Mr. Willis, in the brief, modest, and pertinent preface, says that many of the poems in this volume would have been very different, could the popularity of the thought embodied in them have been foreseen, and time and pains given to make the whole more worthy of its freight. Mending them, he thought of; "but the mending of well known poetry with new verses, shows as ill as new pieces of mahogany on old furniture."

16.—*The Apostolical Primitive Church, Popular in its Government, and Simple in its Worship.* By LYMAN COLEMAN, author of "Antiquities of the Christian Church.' With an Introductory Essay. By AUGUSTUS NEANDER, Professor of Theology in the University of Berlin. 12mo., pp. 432. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

The object of the author of the present work is "to commend to the consideration of the reader the admirable simplicity of the government and worship of the primitive church, in opposition to the polity and ceremonials of the higher forms of prelacy." Mr. Coleman, the learned author, has evinced, in the preparation of his work, great research and industry; and his arguments are sustained by an accumulated array of authorities that it would seem difficult to refute or resist. Bearing on the controversy of the time, touching the claims of Episcopacy, it will doubtless receive, from all interested in the subject, the attention it deserves.

17.—*Advice to Mothers in the Management of their Offspring, during the Periods of Infancy, Childhood, and Youth.* By PYE HENRY CHAVASSE, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. 18mo., pp. 153. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

In a former number of this Magazine we noticed, in terms of high commendation, a little work by the same author, entitled "Advice to Wives." Three editions of the present work were called for in England in twelve months, a proof that such a work was much needed. It is just such a book as should be placed in the hands of every mother in the country.

18.—*Heroes of the Revolution; comprising Lives of Officers who were distinguished in the War of Independence.* Edited by JOHN FROST, LL. D., author of the "Pictorial History of the United States." New York: Saxton & Miles.

In this volume we have a series of interesting sketches of such men as George Washington, Nathaniel Greene, Daniel Morgan, John Stark, Hugh Mercer, Ethan Allen, John Cadwallader, John Conway, William R. Davis, Christophe Gadsden, Horatio Gates, Nathan Hale, Isaac Hayne, Charles Lee, Joseph Warren, John Laurens, and Thomas Mifflin; all of whom figured conspicuously in the struggle which resulted in securing the national independence of the American people.

19.—*The Poetry and History of Wyoming; containing Campbell's Gertrude, and the History of Wyoming, from its Discovery, to the beginning of the present Century.* By WILLIAM L. STONE, author of the "Life of Brant," etc. New York: Mark H. Newman. 1844.

The first edition of this work was published in 1840, and was speedily taken up. The present, the second edition, embraces all that was contained in the first, with an addition of about one hundred pages, including many additional facts of value, and some few corrections. The idea of illustrating the beautiful poem of Campbell with a history of the murderous assault upon Wyoming, was a happy one; and its execution is highly creditable to the industry and research of the accomplished author. Washington Irving has added to the interest of the volume by the contribution of a comprehensive biography of Campbell.

20.—*The Life of Benjamin Franklin; containing the Autobiography, with Notes and a Continuation.* By JARED SPARKS. 8vo., pp. 612. Boston: Tappan & Dennet.

This really splendid volume contains the autobiography of Dr. Franklin as far as he wrote it, with a continuation to the end of his life by Mr. Sparks, whose facilities for obtaining the materials were of such a character as to insure the utmost fidelity. Mr. S. was placed in possession of everything of a documentary character in existence, and also had free access to a larger part of the private correspondence of the distinguished individual whose life he appears to have recorded with so much care; following out the plan of the autobiography by confining himself strictly to a faithful and comprehensive narrative of the leading events and incidents in the life of Franklin, as far as these could be ascertained from his writings, his public acts, and the testimony of his contemporaries. The continuation occupies about one-half of the volume, and renders it the only perfect and complete life of Franklin ever published. The whole forms one beautiful royal octavo volume, printed after the model, and equalling the best specimens of British typography. We are happy to learn that the enterprising publishers, Tappan & Dennet, are about issuing, in duodecimo volumes, the life and writings of Washington and Franklin, under the general title of the "National School Library," at a price that will place them in the reach of every school district in the United States.

21.—*The Highlands of Ethiopia Described, during Eighteen Months' Residence of the British Embassy at the Christian Court of Shoa.* By Major W. C. HARRIS. With illustrations. 12mo., 4 parts. New York: J. Winchester.

The governor and council of Bombay were induced, from the high estimate formed of the talents and acquirements, and of the spirit of enterprise and decision exhibited in the travels of Major Harris, "through the territories of the chief Moselekatse to the tropic of Capricorn," selected him to conduct the mission to the king of Shoa, in Southern Abyssinia. The present work is the result of this mission, and the author has succeeded in making it one of great interest.

22.—*Happy Hours; or, The Home Story-Book.* By MARY CHERWELL. With illustrations, from designs by Gilbert. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This little volume, with several very pretty pictorial illustrations, contains eleven attractive stories for boys and girls, each inculcating some useful lesson of goodness.

23.—*Lectures on Church Government; containing Objections to the Episcopal Scheme. Delivered in the Theological Seminary, Andover, August,* 1843. By LEONARD WOODS, D. D., Professor of Christian Theology. 12mo., pp. 198. New York: Turner & Hayden.

The present series of lectures are published in compliance with the request of those who heard them. The objections to Episcopacy are stated with great force and clearness, but in a liberal and Catholic spirit. We commend the work to all who take an interest in the merits of a question recently agitated, as some suppose for the last time, in the Christian world.

24.—*Shanty, the Blacksmith. A Tale of Other Times.* By MRS. SHERWOOD. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

A neat reprint of one of Mrs. Sherwood's last and best tales.

25.—*The Story of Grace, the Little Sufferer, who died in New York, April* 15, 1837. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

This little sketch is published and sold for the benefit of the afflicted family of Grace, a fact that will induce every benevolent heart to purchase a copy, and thus contribute to the comfort of a worthy family.

26.—*The Lily of the Valley.* By the author of "Little Henry and his Bearer." Sixth edition. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

An interesting story, at once natural and instructive, and well calculated to impress upon the mind lessons of morality and religion.

27.—*Picture Gallery of the New and Old World.* New York: Office of the Republic.

The object of this new weekly Journal "is the diffusion of a taste for the arts and sciences, by the circulation of opinions upon the true value of the subject under criticism, and combining with them a series of American and foreign pictorial illustrations, in design and execution worthy the end proposed." The three numbers before us are beautifully printed, and splendidly illustrated with numerous engravings, of general interest. It is on the plan of the London pictorial papers, and equal, in every respect, to the best of them. The selections, and the original letter-press illustrations, evince discrimination and accomplished scholarship on the part of the editors.

28.—*Simmonds's Colonial Magazine, for April,* 1844. *Vol. I., No. IV.* London: Edited by P. L. SIMMONDS, Esq., F. S. S.

The present number of this excellent periodical is replete with articles of value and interest, not only to the colonists of Great Britain, but to all who desire recent and accurate information touching the geography, progress, and statistics of all parts of the world.

29.—*Destiny; or, The Chief's Daughter.* By the author of "Marriage," and "The Inheritance." 18mo., pp. 328. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This is the first of a series of novels to be published under the general title of "The Cabinet Series," to be issued from time to time, and embrace only such novels and romances as may be selected for their pure moral tone, and acknowledged excellence. The series commences with the present work of Mrs. Fenner, long out of print. Others of equal merit will follow; so that the series will form a standard library of novels and romances.

BOOKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, RECEIVED SINCE OUR LAST.

1.—*Memoirs of Madame D'Arblay, author of "Evelina," "Cecilia," etc. Compiled from her Voluminous Diaries and Letters, and from other sources.* By Mrs. HELEN BERKLEY, author of "The Fortune-Hunter," etc. 2 vols. 12mo. New York: James Mowatt.

2.—*Narrative and Recollections of Van Dieman's Land, during a Three Years' Captivity of Stephen S. Wright. Together with an Account of the Battle of Prescott.* By CALEB LYON, of Lyonsdale. 8vo., pp. 80. New York: J. Winchester.

3.—*A New Spirit of the Age.* Edited by R. H. HORNE, author of "Orion," "Gregory VII.," etc. 18mo., pp. 366. New York: Harper & Brothers.

4.—*Library of Select Novels, No. 34. The Prairie-Bird.* By the Hon. CHARLES AUGUSTUS MURRAY, author of "Travels in America." 8vo., pp. 208. New York: Harper & Brothers.

5.—*The Cruise of the Somers; illustrative of the Despotism of the Quarter-Deck, and the Unmanly conduct of Commodore Mackenzie.* 12mo., pp. 102. New York: J. Winchester.

6.—*Chatsworth; or, The Romance of a Week.* Edited by the author of "Tremaine," "De Vere," etc. 8vo., pp. 122. New York: Harper & Brothers.

7.—*Travels in the Californias, and Scenes in the Pacific Ocean. In Four Parts. Part 3.* By THOMAS J. FARNHAM. 8vo. New York: Saxton & Miles.

8.—*Mysteries of London.* Translated from the French. By HENRY C. DEMING. Part 4. New York: J. Winchester.

9.—*Hayward's Gazetteer of Maine.* 8vo., pp. 92. Boston: B. B. Muzzy. [This is to be followed by Gazetteers of each of the states and territories, in separate parts.]

10.—*Manures. A Prize Essay.* By S. L. DANA. 12mo., pp. 47. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

11.—*The Literary Remains of the late Willis Gaylord Clark; including the Ollapodiana Papers, the Spirit of Life, and a Selection from his various Prose and Poetical Writings.* Edited by LEWIS GAYLORD CLARK. 8vo., Nos. 1 and 2. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.

12.—*Texas: its Geography, Natural History, and Topography.* By WILLIAM KENNEDY, Esq. 8vo., pp. 118. New York: Benjamin & Young.

13.—*The Hierarchical Despotism. Sophisms of the Apostolic Succession Examined and Refuted by the Word of God. Lecture 4.* By GEORGE B. CHEEVER. 12mo., pp. 120.

14.—*Richelieu in Love; or, The Youth of Charles I. An Historical Comedy, in Five Acts. As accepted at the Theatre Royal, Haymarket, and prohibited by the Lord Chamberlain. With a Preface Explanatory.* 8vo., pp. 54. New York: Benjamin & Young.

15.—*An Address on Pauperism, its Extent, Causes, and the Best Means of Prevention. Delivered at the Church in Bowdoin Square, February 4,* 1844. By R. C. WATERSTON. 8vo., pp. 52. Boston: Little & Brown.